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THE SPOKEN WORD AND THE GREAT UNSAID

Wendell Johnson

IF you look at your father long enough you will swear he is someone you have never seen before.

And so with the work we do: the field of speech, intently contemplated by one who finds his occupation in it, comes near to losing its plausibility. This state in which we see as though for the first time something we have long taken for granted is probably essential to innovation and growth. It is the state which must certainly be achieved in some measure if we are to fashion new answers to old questions—questions such as, "What is speech?" It is this question with which the first and substantial part of this paper is concerned. The answer given—arrived at, so far as possible, in the attitude of a calf looking at a new gate—is summarized in the schematic diagram presented in Figure 1. On the basis of this answer, a few modest comments concerning possible trends in speech and communication are ventured toward the end of the discussion.

Whether or not we agree with the old adage, "if you can't diagram it you don't understand it," we cannot doubt that the diagrams we draw are akin to our responses to the Rorschach ink blots in revealing our inner workings; thus they usually do help to clarify, if not what we are talking about, at least our manner of talking about it. If, then, Figure 1 tells you less than you might hope about speech as an aspect of the process of communication, it may possibly tell you enough about the author to help you understand why you do not completely understand him.

I

With the glad hope that both the diagram and its author may turn out to be comprehensible, we may begin by considering that the diagram as a whole is designed to represent the major stages in the peculiarly human process of Mr. A talking to Mr. B, including the most distinctively human form of this process in which Mr. A and Mr. B are one and the same person: a man talking to himself. Even when there is a Mr. B

Mr. Johnson (Ph.D., Iowa, 1931) is Professor of Speech Pathology and Psychology, Director of the Speech Clinic, and Chairman of the University Council on Speech Pathology and Audiology at the University of Iowa. He is a past president of the American Speech and Hearing Association. *In addition to regular duties, he is currently directing research on the beginnings of stuttering and on speech fluency norms, under a grant from the Hill Family Foundation. This paper was prepared in response to the editor's request.*

who is, in fact, different from Mr. A, the strange circumstance remains that Mr. A is still there too, reacting to himself, his own most completely captive listener.[1]

What appears to take place is that, first of all, at Stage 1 some event occurs, external to Mr. A's sensory receiving mechanism. In our speech textbooks Stage 1 is discussed under either or both of two headings: (1) the speech situation, audience, and occasion as these affect the eyes, ears, and other sensory receptors of the speaker, and (2) the "content" of Mr. A's speech, what there might be in the realm of not-words that his words are presumably about. We might profitably be alerted, however, to such questions as: Are our textbook accounts of Stage 1 adequate descriptively? Are they sufficiently indicative of the possible differences between the event at Stage 1 and Mr. A's conscious or unconscious assumptions about the event? And are they wholly clear as to the functional relationships between Stage 1 and the several other stages of the process?

In any event, the happening at Stage 1 is a source of the sensory stimulation that occurs at Stage 2. The dotted lines are intended to represent the fact that the process of communication takes place in a "field of reality," a context of energy manifestations external to the communication process, and in major part external to both the speaker and the listener. The importance of this fact is evident in relation to Stage 2 (or 2′, etc.). The small size of the "opening" to Stage 2 in relation to the magnitude of the "channel" of Stage 1 represents the fact that our sensory receptors are capable of responding only to relatively small segments of the total ranges of energy radiations. That is, the wavelengths to which the eye responds are but a small part of the total spectrum of such wave-lengths. We register as sound only a narrow band of the full range of air vibrations. Noiseless dog whistles, "electronic eyes," and radar mechanisms—to say nothing of homing pigeons—underscore the primitive character of our sensory equipment. Indeed, we seem little more than barely capable of tasting and smelling, and the narrowness of the temperature range we can tolerate is downright sobering to anyone dispassionately concerned with the efficiency of survival mechanisms.

The situation with regard to the normal individual may appear to be sufficiently dismal; it is to be minded, also, however, that few of us are wholly normal in sensory acuity. We are familiar with the blind and partially sighted, the deaf and hard of hearing; we notice less the equally if not more numerous individuals who cannot taste the difference between peaches and strawberries, or cannot smell a distraught civet cat, or feel a fly bite.

All in all, the degree to which we can know directly, through sensory avenues, the world outside (and this includes the world outside the sensory receptors but inside the body) is impressively restricted.

Any speaker is correspondingly limited in his physical ability to know what he is talking about. Relatively sophisticated listeners are likely to judge a speaker's dependability as a communicating agent by the degree to which he discloses his awareness of this limitation.

[1] The process of communication has been considered from points of view different from that of the present article, with diagrams more or less similar to the one presented in Figure 1, in previous publications: Chapter 18 of Wendell Johnson, *People in Quandaries* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1946), and Chapter 5, entitled "Speech and Personality," of *The Communication of Ideas*, ed. Lyman Bryson (New York: Harper & Bros., 1948).

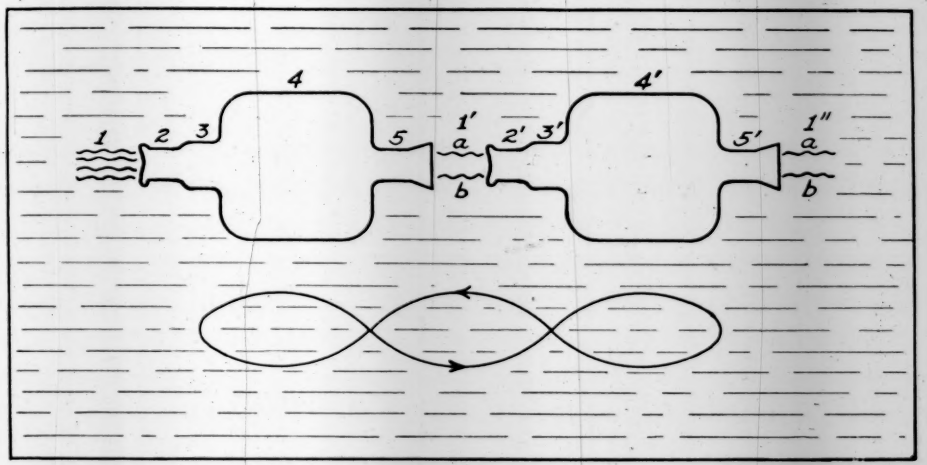

FIGURE 1. Schematic diagram of stages of the process of communication. In the accompanying text, speech is discussed as a mode of the communication process. This diagram is a revision of Figure 17, page 472, *People in Quandaries* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1946) by Wendell Johnson.

KEY: Stage 1, event, or source of stimulation, external to the sensory end organs of the speaker; Stage 2, sensory stimulation; Stage 3, pre-verbal neurophysiological state; Stage 4, transformation of pre-verbal state into symbolic forms; Stage 5, verbal formulations in "final draft" for overt expression; Stage 1′, transformation of verbal formulations into (a) air waves and (b) light waves, which serve as sources of stimulation for the listener (who may be either the speaker himself or another person); Stages 2′ through 1″ correspond, in the listener, to Stages 2 through 1′. The arrowed loops represent the functional interrelationships of the stages in the process as a whole.

II

Once a sensory receptor has been stimulated, nerve currents travel quickly into the spinal cord and normally up through the base of the brain to the higher reaches of the cortex, out again along efferent tracts to the muscles and glands. The contractions and secretions they cause bring about new sensory stimulations which are "fed back" into the cord and brain and effect still further changes. The resulting reverberations of stimulation and response define what we may call a pre-verbal state of affairs within the organism. This state is represented at Stage 3 of the diagram in Figure 1.

Two statements about this pre-verbal state are fundamental. First, to assume that the state occurs seems empirically justifiable and theoretically useful; and, second, it seems necessary to suppose that our direct knowledge of it is slight. No one has ever trudged through the spinal cord and brain with gun and camera, at least not while the holder of the deed was alive. Nevertheless, we know something about the nervous system. Observations have been reported by neuro-surgeons, electroencephalographers, nerve physiologists, and anatomists. Thousands of laboratory animals have been sacrificed on the altars of scientific inquiry. We know that there are nerve currents, that they travel at known rates of speed, exhibit certain electrical properties, and are functionally related to specified kinds and loci of stimulation and to specified kinds and loci of response. Although our factual information is meager as yet, certainly it is sufficient to demonstrate that the nervous system is not merely a hypothetical construct. We can say with practical

assurance that stimulation of our sensory end organs is normally followed by the transmission of nerve currents into the central nervous system, with a consequent reverberation effect, as indicated above, and a resulting state of affairs within the organism.

Two additional remarks about this state of affairs are crucial to our purposes. First the state is truly silent, or non-verbal. The importance of this fact is indicated in the second remark: it is precisely this pre-verbal condition inside the organism that is transformed into words (or other symbols). This means —and these next few words one must read at a snail's pace and ponder long and fretfully—that, besides talking always to ourselves, although others may be listening more or less too, *we inevitably talk about ourselves,* whatever else we may also strive to symbolize. What the speaker (or painter, musical composer, actor, etc.) directly symbolizes, what he *turns into words* or other symbols, are neurophysiological, or electrochemical, or, if you prefer, electronic goings-on inside his own body. His organism, in this sense, operates constantly as a kind of filter through which facts (in the sense of sensory impulses) must pass before they can become known to him and before they can be *communicated* by him to others in some symbolic form, such as standard English code. It follows, to present a single, seemingly trivial, but quite representative example, that the speaker who says, "It's certainly a fine day," is exhibiting an elaborate variety of confusion, fairly pointed up by saying that he appears literally not to know what he is talking about. In the meantime, he is talking about himself, he is symbolizing an inner state, first of all, and in this he is the brother of all of us who speak.

The implication is not intended that we talk solely about our inner states. We often talk about the world outside, but when we do we filter it through our inner states. To the degree that our individual filters are standardized, are alike, we will agree in the statements we make about the world outside—allowing, of course, for differences in time, place, observational set, equipment, sensory acuity, perceptive skill, and manner of making verbal reports. The existence of the filter at Stage 3 of the process of communication is the basic fact. We may differ in our manner of appreciating and interpreting the significance of the filter, and in so doing make ourselves interesting to each other. But when the individual simply never learns that the filter is there, or forgets or disregards it, he becomes as a speaker a threat to his own sanity and a potential or actual menace in a public sense.

Because the filter is there in each of us, self-projection is a basic bodily process that operates in all our speaking and other varieties of communicative behavior. That is, if a person speaks literally he must always say, "As I see it," or "As I interpret the facts," or "As I filter the world," if you please, or simply, "To me." If he is aware of projection, he must make clear, first of all to himself, that he speaks not about reality in some utterly impersonal or disembodied and "revealed" sense, but only about reality as the prism of his own nervous system projects it upon the gray screen of his own language—and he must realize that this projection, however trustworthy or untrustworthy, must still be received, filtered, and re-projected by each of his listeners. Sufficient contemplation of this curious engineering scheme renders one sensitive to the hazards involved in its use. As with any other possibility of miracle, one is well advised not to expect much of it.

III

Stage 4, the first stage of symbolization, is represented in our diagram as a great enlargement in the tunnel through which "the world" passes from Stage 1 to Stage 1′. The words ultimately selected for utterance (at Stage 5) are a very small part of the lush abundance of possible verbalizations from which they are abstracted. Moreover, the bulge is intended to suggest that the state of affairs at Stage 3 becomes in a peculiarly human way much more significant by virtue of its symbolization at Stage 4.

At Stage 4 the individual's symbolic system and the pattern of evaluation reflected in its functioning come into play. The evaluative processes represented here have been the object of much and varied study and speculation. Here, it would appear, was the location of Freud's chief preoccupations, as he attempted to explain them in terms of the so-called unconscious depths of the person, the struggle between the Id and the Super-Ego from which the Ego evolves, the ceaseless brewing of dream-stuff, wish and counter-wish, the fabulous symbolism of the drama that we call the human personality.[2] At this stage is more, indeed, than meets the eye; incredibly more so far as we may dimly but compellingly surmise.

Here, too, were the major preoccupations of Korzybski: the symbol, the creation of symbols and of systems of symbols; the appalling distortions of experience wrought by the culturally imposed semantic crippling of the young through the witless and artful indoctrination of each new generation by the fateful words of the elders, the words which are the carriers of prejudice, unreasoning aspiration, delusional absolutes, and the resulting attitudes of self-abandonment. But also here we find the unencompassable promise of all that *human* can suggest, and this Korzybski called upon all men to see as though anew, to cherish, and to cultivate with fierce tenderness.[3]

Pavlov as well busied himself with ingenious explanations of occurrences at what we have called Stage 4.[4] The learning processes and the drives and goals that power and direct them appear to function, in a significant degree at the human level, at this stage of incipient symbolization. It seems useful to conjecture that perhaps the general *patterns* of symbolic conditioning are formed here, in contrast to the conditioning of specific symbolic responses —that is, particular statements—produced at Stage 5. We may put it this way: at Stage 4 the syllogism, for example, as a *pattern* or *form* of possible symbolic response, is laid down, while at Stage 5 there occur the specific verbal responses patterned in this syllogistic mold. Again, at Stage 4 we find the general form, A>B; at Stage 5 we see its specific progeny in such statements as "John loves Mary," "Germs cause disease," "Clothes make the man," etc. In this relationship between general forms or patterns at Stage 4 and the corresponding specific utterances at Stage 5 we find the substantial sense of the proposition that our language does our thinking for us.

In fact, one of the grave disorders that we may usefully locate at Stage 4 consists in a lack of awareness, and so an absence of a functional appreciation,

[2] Sigmund Freud, *A General Introduction to Psychoanalysis*. Trans. Joan Riviere (New York: Liveright, 1935).

[3] Alfred Korzybski, *Science and Sanity: An Introduction to Non-Aristotelian Systems and General Semantics* (Lancaster, Pa.: Science Press, 1933, 2nd. ed. 1941).

[4] I. P. Pavlov, *Conditioned Reflexes: An Investigation of the Physiological Activity of the Cerebral Cortex*. Trans. and ed. G. V. Anrep (London: Oxford University Press, 1927).

be considered in relation to certain possible trends in the field of speech.

Due contemplation of the process of communication as described above would seem to point, first of all, to the probability that speech, as a professional field, is likely to become increasingly broad. It is not that students and teachers of speech will usurp the proper functions of workers in other areas, such as acoustics, neurology, psychiatry, etc., but rather that they will doubtless feel an increasing need to view speech under the vari-colored light thrown upon it by the specialized workers who deal with the varied factors affecting it. Departments of speech in our colleges and universities will be under increasing pressure from both within and without to cooperate with other departments, particularly in the development of graduate research programs, since the student of speech must go often and far beyond departmental boundaries in search of the courses and experiences essential to a thorough understanding of the process of communication in all its stages.

Unless he ignores these implications, the speech teacher of tomorrow will give greater attention than is customary to what he and his students are talking about, and he will manage to acquire—and to encourage his students to acquire—as much knowledge as possible about the physical and social sciences, the arts and industries, the laws and customs, and the human experiences about which speeches are to be made (the events at Stages 1 and 1′). He will contrive to inform himself as effectively as possible about anatomy, neurology, and physiology (Stages 2-5 and 2′-5′, especially Stages 2, 3, and 5 and 2′, 3′, and 5′); general semantics, cultural anthropology, and psychology, with particular emphasis on motivation, learning, and evaluational and behavior disorders (Stages 4 and 4′); as well as the study of normal speech and of speech disorders in their more superficial aspects (Stage 5). It is likely to follow that students of speech will probably include in their professional training more and more courses outside the departments of speech; within the departments they will find courses being taught with increasing attention to the comprehensive nature of the speech function and to the relationships between speech and other fields. Moreover, it is to be expected that new courses will define and cultivate borderline areas and interdiscipline relationships. For example, courses in the mechanisms and principles of feedback are hardly unlikely, and courses in the general area of semantics will almost inevitably increase in number and variety. The cultural bases and the psychological significance of disorders of speech and other modes of symbolization—the non-clinical aspects of speech pathology—will surely be more and more closely examined.

Considerably more investigation will probably be made of listening, and generally of the receptive phase of the communicative process. Due emphasis will undoubtedly be given to the process of abstracting and to the phenomena of identification and projection inherent in the process. The further prediction seems reasonable that the techniques of projective testing developed by the clinical psychologists will find uses and special adaptations in the study of both speaking and listening.[6] And certainly the fundamental principles and procedures employed by consulting psychologists and psychiatrists in non-directive coun-

[6] Reference is here made to such procedures as the Rorschach test. See Hermann Rorschach, *Psychodiagnostics*, trans. and Eng. ed. Paul Lemkan and Bernard Kronenberg (New York: Grune & Stratton, 1942).

seling[7] cannot fail to contribute significantly to a greatly expanded understanding of listening and more effective training of the listening skills. Cultivation of the art of listening, moreover, must necessarily have a favorable effect on the expressive aspects of speaking.

The impact of semantics should intensify consideration of the crucial role of evaluation in determining both the symptomatology and the personal and social effects of speech and voice disorders, even those associated with organic impairment, such as cerebral palsy. Semantics should also serve to focus systematic attention on the relatively common language-behavior disorders which currently are largely neglected, even unnamed and unrecognized, and yet possibly have more serious effects than the disorders we have learned to appreciate. Moreover, an intensified awareness, as stimulated by semantic investigation, of the cultural bases and influences of speech is almost certain to have a pervasive effect on the professional atmosphere of the general speech field, and to lead to an increasing integration of the data of cultural anthropology into speech theory. The semanticists' emphasis on structural principles, their insistence upon examining any particular fact in the light of its functional inter-relationships, should encourage an increasing appreciation of the inseparability of speech and hearing impairments —and of unimpaired speech and hearing. As a practical consequence, teachers of speech might begin to worry as much about the students in the chairs as about the one on the platform. In general, the implications of Stage 4 loom especially large, as viewed through the lens of semantics, and the future exploration and development of these implications might well alter markedly the general orientation of students and teachers of speech.

The change predicted would involve a shift of major emphasis in speech education from the problems dominating Stage 5 to those important at Stage 4. Such a shift would bring with it an increased concern with the motivational aspects of speech behavior, with the fundamental structures or patterns of symbolic formulation, and with such principles as non-identity of levels of abstracting, tentativeness of abstractions, and the self-reflexiveness of the abstracting process. The problems of reliability and validity of statement are likely to be given relatively more attention, without, however, any reduction in the amount of consideration given to the advocate's stake in persuasion. Persuasion is certainly not likely to be regarded as unimportant, but the principles and techniques of evaluation, on the part of both speaker and listener, are likely to be taught in markedly enriched detail.

VIII

An exhaustive consideration of the probable broadening of the speech field and the development of its relationships to other areas of scholarship and research is manifestly impossible in a brief paper. Remaining discussion might best be concentrated, therefore, upon a specific aspect of the matter that is probably of general interest—that of "communication skills."

In recent years courses or programs developed for the expressed purpose of fostering communication skills have been and are peculiarly concerned with combining somehow the teaching of speech and of English composition. Sometimes an attempt is also made at training in listening and in silent reading, or at

[7] Carl R. Rogers, *Counseling and Psychotherapy* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1942).

THE NAZI RHETORICIAN

Ross Scanlan

SOON after Corporal Adolf Hitler joined an obscure little group of six men calling themselves the Central Committee of the German Workers' Party he sought and obtained control of the organization's propaganda.[1] His associates could busy themselves thinking up new planks to go into the Party's platform, but Hitler, as chief of propaganda, would be the speaker to stand on that platform before the public.[2] He knew that whoever directed the Party's propaganda would direct the Party itself.

The reasons for this were obvious and are set forth at some length in *Mein Kampf*.[3] No political movement of this sort could attain power without a broad base of mass support, and mass support could be achieved only by propaganda. But, again, no propaganda could succeed in winning mass support unless it was executed boldly, energetically, and in line with sound principles of propaganda. This last point had a special significance: Hitler was already convinced that in the Weimar Republic all parties, except the Communists,[4] were making a mess of their efforts to secure popular approval chiefly because they did not understand the popular mind and the right channels through which to reach it.

According to Hitler, the best channel was public speaking. This was one of his earliest and most enduring convictions, and none of his followers ever challenged it by word or action. Goebbels, Hadamovsky, Ringler, and others became master-minds of party propaganda technique, but their theories and operations always stayed within the basic prescriptions laid down by the Führer. That is why the official party speaker system *(Rednerwesen der NSDAP)* always kept a central position in the Party's propaganda machinery, even after the Nazis came into complete power and took over other channels of public communication such as press and radio.[5]

Nazi belief in the superior effectiveness of public speaking explains the steady growth of the speaker staff. It shows why, at the height of Nazi power,

Mr. Scanlan (Ph.D., Cornell, 1937) is Associate Professor in Public Speaking at the City College of New York. He is the author of two articles on the "Nazi Party Speaker System," Speech Monographs, XVI and XVII. *The present paper was presented in an abridged form in the "History of Rhetoric" sectional meeting at the thirty-fifth annual convention of the Speech Association of America.*

[1] Konrad Heiden, *A History of National Socialism* (New York, 1935), p. 12.

[2] As a matter of fact, it was Hitler who publicly announced the famous Twenty-Five Points at a meeting February 24, 1920. How little the party propagandist actually cared for some of his colleagues' contributions to party ideology is perhaps best shown by the following: fully six years after Hitler became the supreme power in the Reich the Party Speaker System was being coached, through its official bulletin *Aufklärungs- und Rednerinformationsmaterial*, on how to answer complaints that so little had been done with some of these points. See my article, "The Nazi Party Speaker System, II," *SM*, XVII (June, 1950), 141-142.

[3] Tr., Ralph Manheim (Cambridge, Mass., 1943), pp. 176-186, 469-479.

[4] Following Hitler's lead, this became a standard theme among Nazi writers on propaganda. See, e.g., Eugen Hadamovsky, *Propaganda und nationale Macht* (Oldenburg i.O., 1933), pp. 42 ff., and Franz Alfred Six, *Die politische Propaganda der NSDAP im Kampf um die Macht (diss.* Heidelberg, 1936), pp. 9, 43.

[5] See, e.g., Hugo Ringler, "Der Redner, der aktivste Träger der nationalsozialistischen Propaganda," *Unser Wille und Weg*, IV (Aug. 1934), 234-240; Eugen Wiesenborn, "Der Redner, Stosstruppmann der vordersten Front," *Unser Wille und Weg*, IV (Oct. 1934), 304-307; A. E. Frauenfeld, "Die Macht der Rede," *Unser Wille und Weg*, VII (Aug. 1937), 240-245, esp. 241.

an elaborate screening process operated to test the fitness of each individual, whether an "old fighter" from the early days or not,[6] to represent the National Socialist point of view on the platform. It explains why, first through courses of instruction offered by party units and auxiliary organizations,[7] and later in schools and institutions appropriated by the Nazis for the purpose,[8] the party speaker was trained in party doctrine and public speaking. It also explains the steady output of articles and essays on public speaking furnished the speaker through publications of the Party's propaganda headquarters.[9]

Although the Nazi rhetorician gave a great deal of instruction and advice about persuasive discourse, he made no pretense to scholarship in rhetoric. The oratorical achievements and rhetorical theories of other people with few exceptions received scant attention from him. Goebbels might comment, very incidentally and briefly, on the eloquence of Latin people but only to show that some nations have demonstrated a natural aptitude for speech.[10] It seems never to have occurred to any Nazi rhetorician to study classical treatises on rhetoric. Hans Krebs might refer to the speaker-training furnished by the Roman Catholic Church to its priests[11] and even recommend that Nazi speakers attend church services and study the technique of the sermon but only as an illustration of what could be done by proper training. He saw no need to study or make use of Church treatises on rhetoric. If the ages had gathered and refined a wisdom about persuasion in speech, that was a matter of no concern to the Nazi rhetorician.

Public speaking in America and England came in for considerable attention from Nazi commentators, as indeed from many other postwar Germans of various political faiths, for there was a prevalent theory in Germany at this time that American and British superiority in political speaking had enabled these countries to achieve a superior war effort. Friedrich Schönemann, a professor at the University of Berlin and a specialist in American affairs, published in 1924 a book entitled *Die Kunst der Massenbeeinflussung in den Vereinigten Staaten von Nordamerika*, which discussed at some length the wartime role of the public speaker in this country. I am not now prepared to say that Hitler knew of this work, either directly or indirectly, or that it influenced his own vehement opinions on this difference between Germany and her former enemies. But there is clear evidence that the contents of the book made a deep impression on other leading persons in the Nazi propaganda machine. Eugen Hadamovsky, for example, and F. A. Six, in books widely read by the party prop-

[6] See, e.g., Hans Riess, "Ein Wort zur Reichsrednerschule," *Unser Wille und Weg*, VI (Oct. 1936), 329-332, esp. 330.

[7] See, e.g., Erich Fehlberg, "Redner der Hitlerjugend," *Unser Wille und Weg*, VII (Feb. 1937), 38-41.

[8] The *Hochschule für Politik* (Berlin) is a notable example. Taken over as an official institution, i.e., *Anstalt des Reiches*, by Hitler's decree on September 30, 1937, it became a college for high ranking units of the speaker system. The present writer has in preparation a paper dealing with this and similar "conversions."

[9] The principal publication for this purpose was *Unser Wille und Weg* which was issued monthly from April, 1931, until wartime shortages obliged it to suspend operations in June, 1941.

[10] Thus Goebbels: "It seems as if the different races are very differently endowed for public speaking, as if some peoples have national characteristics that are too reserved and inflexible for this very social art, while others have qualities exactly predestined for it. Otherwise, one could not speak properly of Latin eloquence. The great abundance of both ordinary and exceptional talents among the Roman people give the word "rhetoric" a special significance applied to them." "Der Führer als Redner," *Unser Wille und Weg*, IX (April 1939), 76.

[11] Hans Krebs, *Redner-Fibel*, 9th ed. (Berlin, 1935), p. 9.

agandists,[12] summarize in some detail material taken from Schönemann, and Schönemann's book itself appears in many selected reading lists issued by the Party. Other examples of the same kind of interest are to be found in such essays as H. Dietz's *"Redekunst als Kampfmittel beim Engländer,"*[13] and Wolfgang Schmidt's *"Die politische Rede in Entscheidungsstunden der Britischen Nation,"*[14] and of course Hitler's own scathing contrast of the oratorical powers of David Lloyd George and von Bethmann-Hollweg.[15]

Nazi interest here was political, not rhetorical. England and America were cited to support basic Nazi theories of leadership and propaganda. No man could be a true leader of his people if he did not have genuine ability to move them by his words. Especially in times of crisis the heads of government must possess the power to arouse the nation through public address. Even this was not enough to satisfy the needs of government; in addition, a government required the services of a large, well-organized corps of reasonably competent speakers operating as a constant channel from the government to the people.[16] England and America were thought to be excellent proofs of these propositions, but even so, there is no evidence that the Nazi looked to these countries for anything in the theory of rhetoric.[17]

We can better understand the Nazi's reference to England and America if we turn to his estimate of his own country's contribution to political oratory. From Hitler and Goebbels down to the least little district leader, Nazi writers on propaganda hammered away at the theme that Germany had rarely achieved anything in oratory commensurate with her political needs or her achievements in other fields. In the long stretch of German history from Martin Luther to Adolf Hitler the Nazis found few orators worthy of note. It was a standard practice among them to praise Johann Gottlieb Fichte for his ardently nationalistic lectures, *Reden an die Deutsche Nation;*[18] and in an essay already cited Goebbels briefly mentions Bismarck but only to say that, after Bismarck, the speaker's platform in Germany remained devoid of talent until the advent of Hitler.[19] German studies in the theory of rhetoric offered the Nazi even less. German scholars customarily treated rhetoric as a branch of study in classical and mediaeval languages or as the material for a philosophy of prose literature. Had such studies as Wilhelm Wackernagel's *Poetik, Rhetorik, und Stilistik* ever come to the Nazi propagandist's attention—a meeting that seems most unlikely—they would have meant only one thing to him: further evidence of the futile and unreal pursuits of the German intellectual.

The only Germans outside of his own party who could teach the Nazi any lessons in rhetoric that he would value were the Communists, because, in Nazi

[12] Hadamovsky, *op. cit.*, p. 44.

[13] *Der deutsche Erzieher* (Stuttgart, 1938).

[14] *Zeitschrift für Neusprachlichen Unterricht,* XXXVIII (1939), 65-82.

[15] *Mein Kampf,* pp. 476-477.

[16] These sources, Schönemann, Hadamovsky, and Six suggest that the Germans were particularly impressed with the work of the "Four-Minute-Man" organization in America, a fact which may well have prompted the establishment of the Nazi Party Speaker System.

[17] The persistent lack of interest in the rhetorical theories of other people may be explained in three ways: many Nazi propagandists regarded Hitler and Goebbels as sufficient fountainheads for all theory; many regarded themselves as practical men who, apart from their debt to Hitler and Goebbels, learned all they needed to know from their own practical experience as party speakers; and all were imbued with the basic Nazi doctrine that their people and their time in history required unique operation. In any case, it does not seem to have concerned them greatly that there might be certain universals in rhetoric which other cultures could teach them.

[18] 1807-08.

[19] "Der Führer als Redner," p. 76.

opinion, they were the only political force in Germany prior to National Socialism that made a genuine effort to reach the mass of the people. Nazi commentators took careful note of the fact that decades ago the followers of Karl Marx had undertaken the important task of translating the difficult language of Marx into terms that would be intelligible to the common man.[20] And now, in the Weimar Republic, the Communists were the only political party to exploit effective techniques of mass influence. To the Nazis this fact was a warning as well as an example. If any other political force was to succeed in opposition to Communism, it could be only such a force as understood and matched the Communist in the use of his own weapons.[21] That is why Hitler spends so much time in *Mein Kampf* on the subject of propaganda and the importance of the spoken word and why the Nazis regarded it as an historic mission of the Nazi Party to establish effective public speaking in a country that had long neglected the art.

The Nazi rhetorician undertook to furnish guidance and instruction for the Party's speaker organization. He, in turn, found within the productivity of National Socialism itself all the resources he seemed to need to give instruction to others. He had the speeches of Hitler, Goebbels, and other leaders of the Nazi Party. He had Hitler's discussion of propaganda and public speaking in *Mein Kampf*. He had the innumerable essays, articles, and published comments of Goebbels and other officials of the Party's propaganda machine, and the publications of his colleagues in the Party's speaker staff. And, finally, he could draw upon his own practical experience as a party speaker, for the Nazi rhetorician prided himself on having learned the fundamental principles of his skill in workshops, taverns, meeting halls, and the public square.

No man more thoroughly typifies the Nazi rhetorician whom I have been describing than the Sudeten leader Hans Krebs. For that reason it may be worth while to outline his political career[22] before examining his specific contribution to the instruction of party speakers.

Krebs was born in 1886 in Iglau, a town about halfway between Vienna and Prague. According to testimonials with which the Nazi Party later honored him, Krebs was the son of a man himself noted throughout the community for the violence of his anti-Slav, pro-German sentiments. From the same sources we learn that young Krebs first distinguished himself for his own political sentiments at the age of ten in a classroom encounter with his Catholic Czech teacher. At that time, throughout its schools in Bohemia, the Catholic Church encouraged the collection of such objects as cork, tinfoil, and postage stamps to be sent as friendly offerings to children in foreign mission schools. On one occasion, the Nazis gleefully record, the pupil Krebs brought to school an impressively large collection of postage stamps. When his teacher innocently inquired if these were "for the Negro children," the boy

[20] "What Karl Marx worked out as his doctrine in books incomprehensible to the masses the orator, Bebel, and his fellow-travelers *(Gesinnungsgenossen)*, with deadly seductiveness, translated into the German of the common man. . . . Thus, through the power of speech, an unnatural doctrine grew." Emil Dovifat, *Rede und Redner: Ihr Wesen und Ihre Politische Macht* (Leipzig, 1937), pp. 9-12.

[21] The Nazi drew at least one distinction, however, between his own and Communist technique that is important in reconstructing a Nazi theory of rhetoric. In Communist agitation he saw a form of rhetoric adapted almost entirely to appeal to lower social classes. Nazi rhetoric, on the other hand, must be suitable, even variously adapted, to all social classes, for the Nazis did not propose the abolition of class differences.

[22] For sources of information on the career of Hans Krebs I am especially indebted to the Wiener Library in London.

dramatically answered, "No! I give nothing to your Czech collections, above all nothing for Negroes. These are for German children!"[23]

The town of Iglau was what the Pan-Germans liked to call "a German island in a Czech sea," "a German speech-island" *(Sprachinsel)*, "a bastion of German art and culture in Bohemia."[24] In towns like these the Germans often outnumbered the Czechs five or six to one, but they were chiefly conscious of being a minority throughout the region as a whole, and they fought against their sense of insecurity by intense pro-German activities. It is, therefore, not surprising that Krebs was, to all intents and purposes, a practising National Socialist long before Hitler appeared in political life. The activities in which Krebs engaged in the first decade of this century are those which later made up the fundamental elements of Hitler's National Socialist movement: German nationalism, anti-Semitism, anti-Marxism, labor organization, youth organization.[25]

A German Worker's Party was established in Bohemia in 1904, and it was not long after that that Krebs became one of its most active members. In 1908 he contributed to *Volkswehr*, a weekly newspaper "dedicated to an intense fight against the Marxist distortion of the working-class movement and for the principles of a genuine National Socialism."[26] By 1910 he was the editor of *Volkswehr*[27] and also had won some prominence in organizing German workers in the railroads, the building trade, and the tobacco industry of the country. Between 1911 and 1914 he was head and chief organizer of a youth movement that had forty-seven branches throughout the country and more than two thousand members. During this period he found time also to be business manager of the Central Commission of the German Workers' Alliance, founder in Vienna of the publications *Deutsche Arbeiterpresse* and *Deutsche Arbeiterjugend*, member of the Austrian Parliament, general manager of the pan-Germanic convention in 1912, and of a similar convention of the German Workers' Party in 1913. Our State Department's Division of Biographic Information records him as "the last manager of the German Labor Party, a forerunner of the NSDAP, in Vienna" before World War I.

During the War he commanded a machine gun unit in the Austrian Army and won silver and bronze medals, first class, for bravery. Immediately after the War he went back into politics. He organized anti-Czech boycotts among the Sudeten Germans and promoted other activities against the new Republic of Czechoslovakia. But his most important enterprise at this time was to help in the foundation of a German National Socialist Workers' Party in Austria and Czechoslovakia. This movement was simultaneous with Hitler's in Germany, yet in the very beginning essentially independent of it. The names of the two parties were the same except for the order of words: in Austria and Czechoslovakia, DNSAP; in Germany, NSDAP. However, Krebs and the other Sudeten leaders quickly accepted Hitler's leadership and the supremacy of the German party, and rearranged their title to conform to Hitler's choice.[28]

[23] *Ein Sudeten Deutscher Ergibt Sich Nicht: ein Buch um den sudetendeutschen nationalsozialistischen Führer, Hans Krebs*, ed. Hans Christoph Kaergel (Breslau, 1938), p. 46.

[24] *Ibid.*, pp. 12, 36, 48-50.

[25] See, e.g., *Four Fighting Years*, "published on behalf of the Czechoslovak Ministry of Foreign Affairs" (London, 1943), p. 26.

[26] Kaergel, *op. cit.*, p. 52.

[27] Documentation for this and other events in Krebs' career is to be found in *Der Grossdeutsche Reichstag 1938, IV Wahlperiode, nach dem 30. Januar 1933* (Berlin, 1938); see "Krebs, Hans."

[28] This line of policy was achieved at a conference between German and Austro-Sudeten

From 1925 to 1933 Krebs represented this party in the Czech Chamber of Deputies. In 1932 he was co-founder of the *Sudeten Volkssport Verband,* a none-too-well disguised copy of the Storm Troopers of Germany. In 1933, after Hitler's accession to power, the Czech government became alarmed, outlawed Krebs' party, and placed him with other leaders under arrest. He soon escaped, however, and fled to the Reich where he received many honors and appointments. His membership card in Hitler's own party carried the comparatively low number, "86." He was a chief councillor in the propaganda ministry, press director of the Reichs Ministry of the Interior, and an honorary state councillor. He was a member of the Reichs Committee of German Homeland Organizations and chief signatory of an agreement whereby that committee pledged financial and political support to Konrad Henlein's Sudeten Germans Homeland Party. From 1936 on he was a member of the German Reichstag. Following the fall of Czechoslovakia at Munich, he returned to his old scene of operations but with new powers and new titles: Minister-Councillor for Czechoslovakia, District President of Aussig, Honorary Gauleiter, and SS-Brigade Leader.

In addition to all this, he was a rather prolific writer on National Socialist themes. The Reichstag directory lists among "other works" *Der Weltkampf, Kampf um die sudeten-deutsche Selbstverwaltung, Deutsche Kampf in Böhmen, Katechismus der völkischen Arbeiterbewegung Österreichs, Macht und Recht, Paneuropa oder Mitteleuropa, Wir Sudetendeutsche.* Also he contributed to anti-Semitic publications such as *Die Weltfront.*

He earned his standing in the Party, however, not merely by his industry in organization and writing. The Nazis, especially the Sudeten Nazis, counted him one of the biggest guns in their battery of party orators. An admission card to a party rally bills Hans Krebs of Aussig as "one of our finest speakers."[29] The volume of testimony to him relates that "party rallies, with Krebs announced as the principal speaker, always drew enormous crowds; he filled the largest meeting halls in our Sudeten German towns."[30] The same source indicates that because of his eloquence the Czechs hated and feared him more than other German Deputies in the Czech parliament; "Never was the Chamber of Deputies so stirred up as on that historic occasion when Hans Krebs pronounced his unforgettable oration against President Masaryk."[31]

We have already seen that Krebs antedated Hitler as an active National Socialist. If we depend on dates of publication, the Sudeten Nazi also preceded the Führer in calling attention to the importance of public speaking for the good of the cause. *Mein Kampf* was written in 1924, while Hitler was serving a prison term; but in 1921 Krebs had published a guide for national socialist speakers entitled *Lerne Reden!* This little work was to enjoy wide and enduring use among speakers of the NSDAP. A Nazi publisher in Leipzig produced a second edition in 1930, and after Hitler's victory in 1933 the book appeared in a somewhat revised and expanded form

leaders in 1921. Krebs later said of this meeting with Hitler: "It belongs to the greatest experience of my life that my very first interview with the Führer gave me the certain conviction, not only that the fundamental principles of the NSDAP fully agreed with our own ideals, indeed conceived them much more fully and compellingly, but that I, in a personal sense, brought away from the conference the unshakable certainty of having found, in Adolf Hitler, the true spiritual leader who would lead the movement to free our nation." *Kampf in Böhmen* (Berlin, 1938), p. 82.

[29] *Ein Sudeten Deutscher,* etc., p. 65.
[30] *Ibid.,* p. 104.
[31] *Ibid.,* p. 78.

under the title *Redner-Fibel.* Thereafter, it went through a series of editions, at least nine, the sixth being published in 1935.

At the beginning of his book Krebs joins the general chorus of Nazis rhetoricians in decrying Germany's previous accomplishments in political oratory:

> We Germans have always cultivated the art of public speaking very poorly. Few of us have been masters of speech communication . . . at least to a degree that would enable us to employ it as an effective means of influencing the masses. [In Germany] the National Socialist Revolution first brought great speakers, like great statesmen, to the front. Even today the asset of effective public speaking is not frequently to be found among the German people.[32]

The deficiency can be largely overcome by a correct understanding of the needs of the Party and a correct understanding of the sources of competence in speaking. As to the needs of the Party:

> . . . who could argue that even the National Socialist victory [of 1933] has made it no longer necessary to publish the ideas of the movement through talks, lectures and public meetings? No less a person than the Führer himself has shown—over and over again—how necessary it is to sustain close contact with the broad mass of people. Even today, when National Socialism has become master of the radio and the press, no one can doubt that, to extend an understanding of the NSDAP in its role as the governing power, innumerable meetings, even in the smallest workshops and tiniest villages, are still needed.[33]

Again, as to ability in speech, it is true that some persons exhibit a natural talent but these are "great exceptions;" most normally endowed people can develop competence through study and practice. There is an *angeborene Beredsamkeit* and an *erlernte Redekunst,* and the Party has need of both. "We must not forget that, in addition to party comrades who speak at the great public meetings, the Party needs many speakers who can clearly present the National Socialist standpoint at smaller meetings or at little gatherings in the workshops and factories."

But Krebs is perhaps most truly the rhetorician when he discusses in some detail the general and specific education of the speaker. The Nazi speaker is advised to study the German classics. "The speaker—not only the beginner but the expert—must continuously study the best works of our greatest poets. In this way he will amass a large treasury of words and the best forms of expression and, beyond that, a steadily widening sphere of knowledge." A little later Krebs returns to the same theme; the speaker must have "a knowledge of belles-lettres, especially a detailed acquaintance with the classic German writers—Goethe, Schiller, and Grillparzer—and also philosophers like Fichte and Schleiermacher." And it is well for him to know German history.

Great importance is given to knowledge of a kind of psychology. This is a much-vaunted specialty of Nazi experts in propaganda. We must call it a "kind of psychology" because the Nazis handled it in their own way. The subject of this knowledge was the *Volksseele,* a term which, ever since the Romantic era, has been used by many Germans to hypostatize the mind and the heart of the people. To the Nazis the *Volksseele* was a single, definite, concrete reality, an object to be studied with great diligence by party speakers. But the Nazi rhetoricians seem generally to have been of the same opinion as Krebs, that this kind of knowledge did not come from book-learning. At least, one did not seek it in the published works of someone calling himself a social psychologist. True, the party speaker was di-

[32] P. 5. As indicated in the text of this paper, this and all subsequent quotations are taken from the *Redner-Fibel;* the translations throughout are mine.

[33] Pp. 5-6.

rected to the writings of Hitler, Goebbels, and others on the subject; but he was constantly advised to depend mainly on his own close observation of the people to give him this resource.

> The speaker's effectiveness will depend basically on a knowledge of the *Volksseele*. . . . Only the speaker who constantly studies the mind of the people will have that inner contact that is so necessary to effective speaking. Only one who knows the sufferings and struggles of the people will know how to coin expressions that are right for the people.
>
> The careful observer can get his clearest view into the soul of the people when a party campaign, a national upheaval, an election, a plebiscite, or some other significant movement in the development of the people is taking place. . . . At every meeting the speaker should make note of especially effective expressions that he hears and should observe what arguments make the deepest impression on the audience. At such meetings one must closely study the psychological reactions of the audience, if he is himself to achieve the greatest effect.[34]

Thus German literature, German philosophy, German history, and the Nazis' own brand of psychology made up the general education of a party speaker. His specific education consisted of heavy doses of party ideology. Like all Nazi rhetoricians Krebs takes great pains with the political indoctrination of the speaker. Here apparently the eager learner cannot spend too much time reading. He needs, first of all, to have a "firm National Socialist philosophy," which comes from an extensive acquaintance with the "vast number of brochures and books" provided by the Party. Krebs's list of required reading includes: Hitler's *Mein Kampf* and his collected speeches; Rosenberg's *Nature, Principles, and Purposes of the NSDAP,* his *Blood and Honor,* and his *Structure of the* [*National Socialist*] *Concept;* Fritsch's *Handbook of the Jewish Problem;* Schwartz-Bostunitsch's *Jewish Imperialism:* Dr. Ley's *Germany has Become More Beautiful,* and his *The Upsurge of Social Integrity;* Goebbels' *Signs of the New Era,* and of course, issues of *Der Angriff;* Frick's *We Build the Third Reich;* Darré's *Peasantry as the Life-Source of the Nordic Race;* and a number of others on Judaism, Catholicism, and Free-Masonry. The student is warned that this list is far from exhaustive, and that he must assemble his own library according to his particular needs, and must make every effort to keep abreast of the current output. In later editions of the *Redner-Fibel* there is a further warning that ever since Hitler came into power there has been a flood of pseudo-National Socialist works against which he must be on guard. To help protect him the NSDAP has established "an Official Party Testing Commission for the Integrity of National Socialist Literature," and every book approved by it bears on the fly-leaf the notation "No Objection," *(Unbedenklichkeitsvermerk.)* Moreover, "the speaker must not borrow these books—he should own them! They must always be available to him."[35]

In addition to basic National Socialist philosophy the speaker must have a precise knowledge of current political events, and for this he will read at least one Nazi newspaper every day. Krebs cannot speak too strongly in favor of the practice of taking clippings from newspapers.

> Whoever wishes to speak with effect and to work evidence into his speech can scarcely get along without a good collection of newspaper clippings. Building up such a collection is a basic requirement for the speaker and the speech. There is almost no talk in which the speaker can do without such clippings. The more conscientious and exhaustive the collection, and the more lucidly it is arranged, the more value it will have.[36]

[34] P. 21.

[35] P. 17.

[36] P. 21.

Detailed instructions are given for the method of handling these clippings: pasting them on sheets of paper of uniform size; writing appropriate labels for them; filing them; etc. Some illustrative headings are: "Winter Relief Work"; "Race Questions"; "Social Politics"; "Jewry"; "The German Labor Front"; "Marxism"; there are sixteen in all, offered as a possible over-all classification with suitable sub-heads. Krebs even suggests that it will help if the folders containing these clippings are of different and appropriate colors.[37] There is some ironical and thoroughly unconscious humor in his examples. Items on agriculture are properly, if somewhat obviously, filed in a green folder, and items on Communism in a red folder. We cannot be sure of the significance or propriety of blue for items on the self-determination of peoples or yellow for items on tenant-farming; but, in view of the very ambiguous attitude of Nazi leaders toward labor once the Party came into power, the choice of "rose" to represent the German Labor Front seems to be a stroke of unconscious genius.

Apart from this discussion of the general and specific education of a speaker, most of the *Redner-Fibel* is devoted to the standard themes of a textbook in public speaking: classification of speech-forms, development of confidence, organization, style, and delivery. However, since they give us an insight into the Nazi concept of the *vir dicendi*, they are worth notice. For Krebs the major distinction in speech-forms lies between the *Vortrag* and the *Rede*, essentially the distinction between exposition and persuasion. The *Vortrag* is

> the exclusively factual exposition of a carefully limited subject. Here the speaker must follow a closely constructed outline. The speech must hold itself strictly to the subject in hand and be addressed primarily to the faculty of understanding. The speaker will avoid large gestures and other forms of emotional excitation. The *Vortrag* is brief and to the point.

The *Rede* works to other ends and with other means:

> It must be spontaneous, without manuscript. At most the speaker permits himself only a few notes, keywords . . . that indicate his main thoughts. If the *Rede* is to achieve its purpose, it must be delivered in a stirring manner . . . it must reach beyond understanding to the feelings of the listeners.[38]

Stage-fright has no rational basis in the situation confronting the speaker, and, after explaining this, Krebs advises the speaker who suffers from it "to breathe deeply or to drink a few swallows of water."

> But in no case make use of alcohol. The best thing is some mineral water. Spring water works extraordinarily well, both on the nerves and on the vocal chords. Alcohol produces congestion in the speech organs, brings about fatigue, and increases nervous tension. Soda water also is not recommended because it quickly dries up the mouth and throat.[39]

The speech has its standard division into three parts: introduction, body, and conclusion. First there must be an appropriate salutation: "Honored Assembly" (*Geehrte Versammlung!*), or "Comrades of the People" (*Volksgenossen*), "German Men and Women" (*Deutsche Frauen und Männer*), "Dear Labor Comrades" (*Liebe Arbeitskammeraden*). Then the speaker begins, "as simply, plainly, engagingly as possible and *not too loud*!"[40]

> The introduction must be well worked out; thereby the speaker gains absolute assurance. As soon as he has presented the introduction properly, he feels this sense of assurance. He looks the audience calmly in the eye, takes note of whatever factions there may be among the listeners, especially of opponents, and remains tranquil and undisturbed. Then he begins [the body of] his speech. . . . Under no circum-

[37] P. 29.

[38] Pp. 7-8.

[39] Pp. 31-32.

[40] P. 49, Krebs's punctuation and italics.

stances should he open his speech with an apology of any kind.[41]

In discussing the body of the speech Krebs urges the speaker to be well prepared with all kinds of evidence and supporting material. At the same time he cautions the speaker to be discreet in the amount of statistical data he uses. When attacking the enemies of National Socialism, one should always try to turn their own statements against them. Whatever the purpose of the speech the speaker should always develop it so that "the most important and impressive part comes at the end."[42]

The standard Nazi talk always ends with a peroration. Thus Krebs advises his readers that "the conclusion is often the deciding part of the speech . . . it must aim not only at understanding but even more at the emotions . . . it must call up will and action." He cites the conclusions in Fichte's *Reden an die Deutsche Nation* as good specimens.[43] But the outstanding example of "an overwhelming conclusion" is that which Adolf Hitler delivered when he was on trial in a Munich court in April, 1924, after the famous *putsch*.[44] Krebs also undertakes to get his speaker off the stage in the proper way. The exit must be conducted in a "serious and dignified" manner. "The speaker should never respond to applause by bowing; rather he should turn away with his head erect and a firm step. Inwardly and outwardly his behavior should be courteous, straightforward, upright, and manly."[45]

With our attention focussed on the language favored by Hitler in his writings and speeches, and, we may add, by a host of lesser Nazis who imitated and sometimes even outdid him in the new jargon, it is interesting to see what a Nazi rhetorician has to say on the subject of style. Actually, Krebs's treatment is rather moderate and conventional. Style, like handwriting, we are told, is individual. Basically it cannot be learned, but it can be improved by growth of culture and education and by tireless effort in composition. It must be natural and unified, and not dressed up for the platform. "Let each one speak and write as he speaks and writes in daily life. Let him avoid the affected, the theatrical, the forced. Whoever puts too much artifice into his style thereby defeats his own purpose and rings hollow!"

There are four forms of style:

> one dominated by the intellect, which is capable of great effectiveness through the power of logic and thought. This is the way professors and scholars speak. [*sic*]
>
> a style ruled by imagination. Here the speaker seeks his effect through the beauty and loftiness of his language. This form of style is used especially by clergymen, eulogists, and other ceremonial speakers.
>
> a style ruled by the will and by a strong sense of urgency. . . . This is the characteristic style of the true *Volksredner*.
>
> the style in which the faculties of reason, imagination, and emotion are equally dominant.[46]

Hitler is cited as the outstanding exemplar of this final and culminating form of style in which all powers of the mind combine.

Anyone aspiring to the post of Nazi speaker is cautioned against certain common errors of style. He should avoid the excessive use of "patch-words" *(Flickwörter)*, phrases thrown in to cover gaps and hesitations. Examples are: "so to speak," "to some extent," "namely," "in any case," and the repeated use of salutations in the text of the speech. According to Krebs, another bad practice is the use of foreign expressions. This is an old injunction in German rhetoric, with its roots deep in German nationalism.

[41] P. 50.
[42] P. 53.
[43] P. 54.
[44] P. 56.
[45] P. 58.
[46] Pp. 59-62 for all material dealing with style.

In our text the speaker is given the added warning that misuse of foreign expressions may cause him to be laughed at and that such laughter is fatal, especially to a political speaker. More startling is the statement that extravagant phrases of abuse must be avoided. Too many speakers are prone to exaggerate. Discreet and accurate speeches have a far better effect. To this category of exaggerations belong the so-called *Kraftausdrücke,* common labels that are often the "signs of a weak intellect and a weak case." Such phrases "only succeed in filling the better sort of people [in our audience] with a deep aversion to political and public life."

One note will suffice on Krebs's treatment of the subject of delivery. He is a great believer in the value of oral interpretation as a method of training.

> Everything that [the speaker] reads in [German literature and poetry] he should read aloud. In this way he improves the quality of his voice, acquires greater vocal endurance and a better inflection. The student of public speaking should read the dramas, poems, comedies of our greatest writers aloud, as loudly as actors sometimes do. If there is no place for this activity in his home, let him go out of doors![47]

To sum up, the *Redner-Fibel* is a work of very modest proportions, not only in length but in treatment. It makes no slightest pretense to a deep philosophical analysis of the problems of persuasive discourse. In the field of rhetorical theory it is an item for the historian rather than the philosopher. However, the prestige of its author within the Party and the extensive use of the book by party speakers give it the status of an approved description of the Nazi concept of the good speaker. Actually, *Redner-Fibel* offers nothing that is not intended as practical advice and instruction; but in so doing it makes clear to a large extent the principles and conceptions of rhetoric maintained by the writer and endorsed by the Party.

[47] Pp. 10-11.

COMMENTARIES

HITLER ON PROPAGANDA

> The function of propaganda does not lie in the scientific training of the individual, but in calling the masses' attention to certain facts, processes, necessities, etc., whose significance is thus for the first time placed within their field of vision.
>
> The whole art consists in doing this so skillfully that everyone will be convinced that the fact is real, the process necessary, the necessity correct, etc. But since propaganda is not and cannot be the necessity in itself, since its function, like the poster, consists in attracting the attention of the crowd, and not in educating those who are already educated or who are striving after education and knowledge, its effect for the most part must be aimed at the emotions and only to a very limited degree at the so-called intellect.
>
> All propaganda must be popular and its intellectual level must be adjusted to the most limited intelligence among those it is addressed to. Consequently, the greater the mass it is intended to reach, the lower its purely intellectual level will have to be. But if, as in propaganda for sticking out a war, the aim is to influence a whole people, we must avoid excessive intellectual demands on our public, and too much caution cannot be exerted in this direction.—Adolf Hitler, *Mein Kampf,* translated by Ralph Manheim. Boston, 1943, Houghton Mifflin Company. Pp. 179-180. Reprinted by permission.

THE ORATORY OF BRITISH NINETEENTH-CENTURY STATESMEN

Joseph H. Park

THIS topic by its very scope calls for an explanation and a definition. Manifestly all British statesmen of the nineteenth century cannot come under survey since a mere list of names would occupy a vast amount of space. Rather a few British statesmen, for the most part those who attained the rank of prime minister, must become—rightfully it is hoped—the center of attention. Yet other political leaders like Lord Brougham of the early part of the century and John Bright of the later period, who never gained the highest political office, deserve some comment since the effectiveness of their oratory forms part of the history of nineteenth-century England.

It is conceded that prime ministers have not been necessarily the foremost scholars or the preeminent thinkers of their day. But standing as they did in the political arena, they were constantly pressed to display among other attributes the ability to express cogently such ideas as they possessed. In reality some effective means of communicating to followers the import of programs and philosophies represented a duty of any party leader, were he in charge of the destinies of the Government or, on the other hand, of the Opposition. Shall this means of communication be called oratory?

Oratory, as Lord Selden said of equity, is a roguish thing, difficult to catch for definition. To a mental heir of Selden, it is a vague thing; to a historical student, impressed with the glories of the late eighteenth century, it may be a moribund thing: indeed, one gentleman, speaking in the twentieth century before a historical meeting gave a paper on "The Decline of Oratory as a Factor in History."[1] To a follower of Bentham it becomes, perchance, the practical thing of which a mid-nineteenth century writer gave description: "There are degrees and classes of oratory as there are of poetry. The chief object of oratory is to persuade or convince, to bring the mind of the hearer into agreement and cooperation with that of the speaker."[2]

If this definition be accepted, it can be reasserted that statesmen must have found themselves under the requirement of utilizing the power of exposition in such fashion as to hold at the same time members of Parliament and the country at large. There was, in truth, no way of getting the attention of the country during the nineteenth century with as much effectiveness as could be done by a Parliamentary speech. This situation began to change only after Gladstone's innovation—in the 1879 Midlothian campaign—of appealing to the public by platform addresses and after the new methods of arousing a reading public which W. T. Stead practised in the Gen-

Mr. Park is Dean of the Graduate School of Arts and Science, New York University. *This paper is an adaptation of one presented at the Convention of the Speech Association of America in New York, 1950.*

[1] Josiah P. Quincy, "The Decline of Oratory as a Factor in History," *Mass. Hist. Soc. Proceedings*, series 2, XV (February 1902).

[2] G. H. Francis, *Orators of the Age* (New York, 1847), p. 53.

eral Gordon-Khartoum controversy of 1884. If, as has been asserted, Stead was attempting to intensify the influence of newspapers upon Parliamentary leaders, the focal point still rested in the conduct of the prime minister. That oratory as practiced in Parliament was still important in the affairs of the nation can be gleaned from the leader of the London *Times* on Gladstone's sally at an Opposition which could offer no suggestions about means of dealing with Gordon: "Look! Dumb."[3] The same conclusion with a more definite hint of the force of effective Opposition criticism in Parliamentary practices can be read in the comments of the *Economist:* "Rarely if ever, in our Parliamentary history has so strong a position been so recklessly thrown away by a Government. The oratorical resources of the Opposition in the House of Commons are not rich, but no one could have been prepared for such a feeble presentation of the case against the Government."[4] So far as Gladstone's Midlothian campaign is concerned, it exhibited oratory in a novel way, to the disgust of some conservative-minded persons, to the advantage of the statistician who asserts the words spoken by Gladstone numbered 85,840, to the chagrin of the Opposition leader, Disraeli, who denounced "this drenching rhetoric" and boasted "I have not read a word of it,"[5] but to the delight of untold numbers of countrymen whose response was cleverly called to the attention of the world in remarks by Lord Rosebery:

> My Lords, Ladies, and Gentlemen— . . . I am convinced . . . that I shall best meet your views and my own by saying but one word and by detaining you as shortly as possible from hearing that silver voice [cheers] which during the past week enchanted Scotland and enchanted the world . . . an illustrious statesman has come down to fight a supreme battle in the cause of freedom [cheers]. He has passed through one long series of well-ordered triumphs from his home in Wales to the metropolis of Scotland. There has been no village too small to afford a crowd to greet him; there has been no cottager so humble that could not find a light to put in his window as he passed. Mothers have brought their babies to lisp a hurrah; old men have crept forth from their homes to see him before they died. . . . The heart of the Nation has been touched. . . .[6]

There seems, then, to be no lack of justification for a brief survey of the oratory of British nineteenth-century statesmen. For this purpose it is convenient to divide the century into three parts: the portion of the century prior to the Reform Bill of 1832; the period between the Great Reform Bill and the 1860's wherein statesmen became more and more alive to just public demands for a vast amount of legislation; and, finally, the age of Disraeli, Gladstone, and Salisbury.

I

The outstanding government leaders during the first third of the century were the Tories, Canning and Wellington; the Whig orator was Lord Brougham. Canning and Brougham were great rivals; Wellington, if he is to be listed as an orator at all, is certainly to be placed in a unique category. Canning and Brougham represented not only rivalry and opposing parties but also different means of persuasion. An author[7] of 1854 treating of oratory throughout the ages includes only these two for the nineteenth century. It may be that this writer was influenced by the idea that all great oratory antedated 1832.

Brougham is perhaps best remembered nowadays for his interest in education, although the part that he played as adviser to Queen Caroline may occasion-

[3] *The Times,* May 13, 1884.
[4] *The Economist,* February 23, 1884.
[5] D. C. Somervell, *Disraeli and Gladstone* (New York, 1926), p. 221.
[6] *The Times,* December 1, 1879.
[7] David A. Harsha, *Orators and Statesmen* (Philadelphia, 1854).

ally be mentioned. In the opinion of his contemporaries he seemed destined to the highest honors of the nation, not because of the nicety of his judgments but because of his oratorical abilities. The suggestion may be ventured that it would be hard to find a statesman whose place in public esteem was more dependent on oratory than was Brougham's. His speeches may no longer seem to a reader to be concise. In fact Canning pointed out to the House of Commons that Brougham touched as he proceeded with an argument on about every subject "within the range of his imagination, as well as making some observations on the matter in hand." But by use of vehemence and sarcasm, by the thunder of voice and a stern visage, and especially by an ability to take that which seemed to be without form and finally to give an impression of unity, he managed to compose a lofty declamation by which he could fascinate. His lack of judgment, however, proved fatal to the hope of the highest preferment in office.

Canning, in turn, met with criticism from Brougham. The latter declared: "his declamation though powerful, always beautifully ornate, never deficient in admirable diction . . . came from the mouth, not from the heart."[8] It is probable that Brougham displays the traditional lack of judgment in this evaluation. A twentieth-century student of Canning's speeches is apt to be struck by the logic of argument, the beauty of phraseology, the brevity albeit the completeness in the depiction of a concept, and the strength of personality. Unfortunately some of the speeches that he delivered in the House of Commons have been transmitted to us with a use of the third person and, therefore, seemingly, lack eloquence. Other speeches make clear the attributes which he possessed. Take, for example, his speech at a public dinner in which he courageously defended the repressive policies of a Tory Government:

> Gentlemen, all power is, or ought to be, accompanied by responsibility. Tyranny is irresponsible power. This definition is usually true, whether the power be lodged in one or many;—whether in a despot, exempted by the form of government from the control of the law; or in a mob, whose numbers put them beyond the reach of the law. Idle, therefore, and absurd, to talk of liberty, when you hold your property, perhaps your life, not indeed, at the nod of a despot, but at the will of an inflamed and infuriated populace! If, therefore, during the reign of terror at Manchester, or at Spafields, there were persons in this country who had a right to complain of tyranny, it was they who loved the Constitution, who loved the monarchy, but who dared not utter their opinions or their wishes until their houses were barricaded, and their children sent to a place of safety. That was tyranny! and, so far as the mobs were under control of a leader, that was despotism! It was against that tyranny, it was against that despotism, that Parliament at length raised its arm.[9]

In the most famous of all his speeches —that on defence of the Portuguese policy—he made an indelible impression upon members of the House of Commons. Listen to the ebullitions of a contemporary:

> It was as if every man in the House had been electrified. Tierney [himself, a debater of some fame] who before that was shifting in his seat, and taking off his hat and putting it on again, and taking large and frequent pinches of snuff, and turning from side to side, till he, I suppose, wore his breeches through seemed petrified, and sat fixed, and staring with his mouth open for half a minute. Mr. Canning seemed actually to have encreased in stature, his attitude was so majestic. I remarked his flourishes were made with his left arm; the effect was new and beautiful. . . . It reminded me and came up to what

[8] Henry, Lord Brougham, *Historical Sketches of Statesmen Who Flourished in the Time of George III* (Philadelphia, 1839), II, 98.

[9] This portion of Canning's speech can be found conveniently in Joseph H. Park, *British Prime Ministers of the Nineteenth Century* (New York, 1950), pp. 27, 28.

I have heard, of the effects of Athenian eloquence.[10]

Another witness, as if to vindicate these remarks, added—"He positively electrified his audience when he uttered those striking words, 'I called the New World into existence to redress the balance of the Old.'" . . .[11]

Small wonder that Gladstone proclaimed to a Parliamentary audience at a much later date, "with Mr. Canning and under the shadow of that great name . . . I grant my youthful mind and imagination were impressed . . ." and that Byron called him,—"Our last, our best, our only orator."

One characteristic of Brougham and Canning may be called to attention—i.e., the use of the theatrical. Even if there is variance of interpretation between the older accounts and the more recently expressed opinion of Professor Arthur Aspinall[12] over the scene which accompanied Brougham's words in the House of Lords on the Great Reform Bill, the connotation is evident:

"By all you hold most dear—by all the ties that bind everyone of us to our common country, I solemnly adjure you—I warn you—I implore you—yea, on my bended knees I supplicate you—reject not this bill."

Brougham himself complained that in Canning "an actor stood before us, a first rate one no doubt, but still an actor; and we never forgot that it was a representation we were witnessing, not a real scene."

A Parliamentary audience of a later date would hardly have endured the presentations of Brougham and Canning in the person of John Bright or Lord Salisbury or even Gladstone himself.

The third figure among the group of leaders of that day, the Duke of Wellington, if introduced at this point, may save us from the dogmatism to which the foregoing generalization tends to lead: Wellington is supposed to have been almost devoid of histrionicism. But, though his utterances were frequently indistinct, his diction somewhat bleak, his delivery without charm, he cut through to the heart of a situation, organized his ideas so that listeners felt little confusion and gave the impression, partly because of his character and the traditions behind him, of embodying practicability and common sense. The story that the Duke explained the battle of Waterloo so ably to George IV that the latter ever after imagined himself to have been an actual spectator of the event may not be true, and if true, a reflection less upon the ability of Wellington than a counter attribute of the King. A perusal of Wellington's speeches in Hansard's *Parliamentary Debates* will lead, however, to the conclusion that he did not lack persuasive powers.

II

The period of the Reformed Parliament—after 1932—is distinguished from the preceding period less by a difference in the personnel of Parliament than by the quantity and nature of legislation. The basic need for Parliamentary Reform emanated from the Industrial Revolution of the eighteenth century. Questions of representation were related to demands for all kinds of changes—political, economic, social. No one statesman gave response to the demands either favorably or contrariwise. Perhaps Peel and Palmerston are as good representatives as can be found—Peel the Tory who accepted many of

[10] *Diary of an M. P.*, quoted in J. Styles, *Life of George Canning* (London, 1829), II, 412-413.
[11] A. G. Stapleton, *George Canning and his Times* (London, 1859), chap. III.
[12] Arthur Aspinall, *Lord Brougham and the Whig Party* (Manchester, 1927).

the Whig principles, Palmerston the Whig in whom the Tories felt confidence and security. Neither possessed the highest oratorical abilities although both could rise to heights; Palmerston did so especially in the *Civis Romanus sum* speech, noteworthy for effectiveness in spite of its duration "from the end of one day to the dawn of the next." Peel enjoyed a reputation for his management of Parliament and therein has been compared to Sir Robert Walpole. Palmerston knew how to keep the public interested in Palmerston and in foreign affairs, for which he had enthusiasm. Peel was master of details, particularly in the field of economics, but the reading of his Parliamentary speeches is not an enlivening experience. Palmerston knew how to gauge the temper of his countrymen but frequently he was not well prepared. Peel because of his unorthodox manner of delivery and Palmerston because of his hesitation for word or phrase gave reason to mid-century writers to assert that oratory was in decline. The facts may have been true but the reason which was advanced—i.e., that statesmen appropriated their energies in mastering practical and detailed materials—is open to question. Had their interpretation been correct, then, indeed, would oratory have been an art of the past and the privilege of commenting upon the real makers of the nineteenth century—Gladstone and Bright, Disraeli and Salisbury—forbidden to the individual who would wish to search for a correlation between eloquence and the potency of political leaders of the later era. Salisbury possessed less oratorical ability than Disraeli and Disraeli less than either Bright or Gladstone. In any case the thesis that practical detailed legislation blights oratorical powers seems hardly to be borne out.

III

John Bright won fame as the outdoor orator for repeal of the Corn Laws. Whether he by his popular appeal, or Richard Cobden by his clever Parliamentary debates, or Peel by his Parliamentary maneuvering, may be credited with the change of commercial policy can be left for discussion elsewhere but certain it is that historians would hesitate to accept all the implications of the conclusions formulated by a twentieth century writer:

"The unparalleled commercial prosperity since enjoyed by this country may be attributed in great part to the policy then adopted through the influence of oratory."[13]

Bright added to his fame as the exponent of political democracy. During the years of the American Civil War he displayed in his speeches the zeal of a crusader and, after the War, continued an agitation for the extension of the franchise in England. So effective was he that the Member of Parliament who later became Lord Salisbury called him the father of the 1867 Reform Bill, the act by which the working classes of the towns were enfranchised. Utilizing a moral tone he found it unnecessary to give himself to gesticulation.[14] Lacking training in the classics, he turned to the Bible, thereby projecting an imagery which stirred his audience. When the Corn Laws are repealed, he promised, for example, every man shall be able to sit in the shade of his own vine and fig tree. Though he was no master at rousing members of the House of Commons, he could, by reason of his sallies, cause his opponents to remain alert.

Disraeli, who with more justice may

[13] Robert Craig, *A History of Oratory in Parliament*, 1213 to 1913 (London, 1913), p. 242.

[14] Cf. letter in G.M. Trevelyan, *The Life of John Bright* (London, 1913), p. 86.

be referred to as the parent of the democratic act of 1867, had a long history of expressing sentimental regard for the poorer sections of society. He had spoken and written with sympathy for the ideas of the Chartists. He had expounded learned theses about reciprocal duties and privileges of all groups in society. Likewise he had dreamed of a future when his greatness would be acclaimed in political circles. In spite of an inauspicious start as a Parliamentary speaker he soon gained reputation for wit and sarcasm. Upon occasion he practised effrontery. How often in Hansard can be found the equal of his attack upon Peel for giving up protection of agriculture—"that beauty which everybody wooed and one deluded"? For himself there remained the opportunity of expressing publicly his belief that the Conservative Government was an Organized Hypocrisy.[15] As befitted the author of *Vivian Grey* he employed the epigram so effectively that his shorter sayings are ofttimes remembered when the longer oratorical flights of contemporaries have been forgotten. His flippant repartee and clever illustration, his great ability at generalization made him a worthy opponent of Gladstone. But he could not compete with Gladstone in the mastery of detail nor did political opportunities occur in such fashion as to permit him to become as great a reformer as Gladstone.

Turning to the latter we may well wonder at the individuality and the versatility which he manifested. His versatility will become apparent to one who would read in 366 separate volumes of Hansard, check on 250,000 documents among his papers, delve in articles and books treating of religion for the period of his life, and look at the nineteenth century controversy over the Homeric question. He apparently had abilities to get very rapidly an understanding of the intricacies of railroad organization, compound householding, or Irish land laws. His interests would permit him to declaim:

> May wealth in England never fail,
> Nor pity for the poor.

Gladstone's individuality was evident in the category to which he has been assigned as orator. Probably no nineteenth-century prime minister was his equal. It was not only a matter of modulation of voice, flash of eye, variety of gestures, appropriate English quotations and citations from the Latin upon which fame rested, but also the moral tone and the conviction which so impressed his hearers. When he spoke, averred an admirer, one could have eyes for no other person. His one-time follower, W. E. Forster, remarked rather bitterly in connection with the Gordon incident, "He can persuade most people of most things, and above all he can persuade himself of almost anything."[16] There is a tradition, coming possibly from Balfour,[17] that he was an orator to be heard rather than read. Such a tradition would apply to Disraeli with as much reason as to Gladstone. Gladstone's speeches do leave a definite impression of the statesman. Let anyone who doubts follow the debates on the second reading of the 1886 Irish Home Rule bill. And when he has come to Gladstone's final plea let him ask himself where there is to be found in Parliamentary history a more affecting peroration. Any disquisition on the oratory of Gladstone should note that as a long time leader of a political party he was obliged to work essentially for the success of a program frequently embrac-

[15] Hansard's *Parliamentary Debates*, 3rd ser., LXXVIII, 1022-28. The capitals appear in Hansard.

[16] Hansard, 3rd ser., CCLXXXVIII, 56.

[17] Hansard, 4th ser., LVIII, 122.

ing legislation in many diverse fields. Truly may it be questioned whether legislation with its details precludes development of oratorical abilities.

The names of Gladstone and Disraeli have come habitually to be linked; but if 1868, the year of Gladstone's first ministry, be used, Salisbury will be seen to have been the opposing party leader for the same length of time as was Disraeli. It is true that Gladstone and Salisbury parried over the Irish question, but rivalry between them was hardly as deep-seated as between Gladstone and Disraeli. Gladstone was more interested in domestic and less interested in foreign affairs. Gladstone was in the House of Commons, Salisbury in the House of Lords. Gladstone was an orator; Salisbury made important pronouncements, possessed a keen intellect, could become a rather impressive speaker but lacked passion in his eloquence and the personal magnetism that causes fellowmen to proclaim their leader. Concerned with the expansion of the British Empire, he had the chance to copy Chatham and, perhaps, by accomplishing imperial federation to surpass him. But his declaration that if military advisers were allowed full scope they would insist on the importance of garrisoning the moon in order to protect the country from Mars connotes a lack of fervor which is reflected in his oratory.

IV

Can there be any conclusion forthcoming from this survey? At least one important conclusion seems to be evident: Oratory is not dead; it is not in the process of dying. National problems may vary from time to time, hopes and aspirations of a people may take on new complexion, legislation in contrast to administration may demand more or less attention from statesmen, propriety and fashion may be inconstant, yet oratory as defined in this paper will of necessity remain. Otherwise the query comes whether exigencies of the British people have lessened or the training of her statesmen in University debating clubs[18] and elsewhere has deteriorated or the potentially great leaders are forsaking a path of duty or they lack the capacity of their forebears. Like masters of music who historically have changed the forms of their art and by use of dissonance the means of expression, the masters of oratory have adapted themselves to the tides and tastes of their day in the presentation of their ideas; yet orators, like musicians, still command the respect of their audiences.

Perhaps the conclusion may be put in a more nearly personal way: Cannot Gladstone even in the written form touch one as deeply as Canning; cannot Asquith in his appeal for help to the aged, pleading with passion before the Parliament of 1907,[19] touch one as deeply as Gladstone? Again, let it be said, oratory is not dying. If dispute arises on this point may it be no more serious than the dispute that both Fox of the eighteenth and Gladstone of the nineteenth century described in a tongue now infrequently heard, even in halls of learning.

Breves inamicitiae, amicitiae sempiturnae.

[18] See on this topic Dr. F. Gosses, translated from the Dutch by Mrs. E. C. Van der Gaaf, *The Management of British Foreign Policy before the First World War* (Leiden, 1948).

[19] For the effective part of Asquith's speech, see Carlton Hayes, *British Social Politics* (Boston, 1913), pp. 134-137.

tion."[8] Good speech as he conceives it should represent Nature as the artist represents her—at her best, with her impurities refined away. The precepts for ideal speech must be "derived from the study of nature it is true, but applied to represent her chosen, corrected, and combined individualities; and thereby . . . to generalize and exalt even that Nature, in form if not in purpose above herself."[9] In this, of course, he is following strictly the Aristotelian aesthetic, though I have not observed that he anywhere refers to Aristotle's *Poetics*. It is from nature in this sense that he attempts to derive all his conclusions. He announces in his Introduction that he will disregard any criticism of his work "that is not the result of a scrutinizing comparison of its descriptions, with the phenomena of Nature herself."[10] And in his section "Of the Means of Instruction in Elocution" he says, "I have endeavored to set before the Reader, a copy of the all-perfect Design of Nature, in the construction of Speech."[11] And again, "The system here proposed has its Origin and its Confirmation in Nature."[12] It is obvious that Rush's intention was to set forth a thoroughly natural system of elocution.

It should be apparent from what has been said so far that the terms *natural* and *mechanical* need careful definition, and perhaps also that our assignment of various writers to one school or the other needs reexamination.

When we say that "natural" speaking is good do we mean that it is spontaneous, or habitual, or conventional?

Does our reference to "natural method" mean method of speaking, or method of teaching?

Do we make a distinction between "naturalness" as the *norm* of good speech, and "naturalness" in our method of achieving this norm?

Does "naturalness" mean the same thing when applied to extemporaneous speaking, to reading factual matter, reading poetry, and to acting a part in a play?

Does the "natural" expression of an author's emotion mean that one must *feel* the emotion and express it as if it were one's own?

Is the "natural" representation of an emotion or a character (such as Hamlet) to be achieved by giving vent to one's instinctive behavior, by studying one's own emotional behavior, or by studying the behavior of others?

When we assign a writer to the "natural" or the "mechanical" school do we notice first whether he is merely describing how the voice may operate, or prescribing how it *must* operate?

Is it always true that "natural" expression is good, and "mechanical" expression bad?

These questions need answers. The concept of "naturalness" has received little critical examination, except for Professor Winans' study of Whately referred to above, and a study by Richard Murphy, "Natural and Mechanical" in *The Emerson Quarterly*, in 1937.[13] The word *natural* has so many meanings that it will be useful to us only when we make clear in the sense in which it is employed.

First, it seems to me, we must distinguish between the spontaneous or habitual utterance which feels natural to the

[8] Sixth ed., p. 489.
[9] *Ibid.*, p. 55.
[10] *Ibid.*, p. 44.
[11] *Ibid.*, p. 484.
[12] *Ibid.*, p. 534.

[13] Other criticisms of Whately may be found in James Rush's *Philosophy of the Human Voice*, Sixth Edition, 1867; George Vandenhoff's *Art of Elocution*, 1855; J. C. Zachos' *Analytic Elocution*, 1861; Hiram Corson's *The Voice and Spiritual Education*, 1896; S. S. Curry's *The Province of Expression*, 1891; and in my *Reading Aloud*, 1932.

speaker, and utterance that *seems* natural to the audience. If a student is frightened, inhibited, or affected, we quite properly encourage spontaneous utterance as a corrective to these unnormal interferences with "natural" speech. We wish to free him from any hindrances to what is for him the normal functioning of his agents of expression. What we mean is, Be at ease, Be sincere, Be your normal self. Such advice may serve well enough for one who is delivering extemporaneously his own thoughts, though even in such cases we must make reservations, for, as Professor Winans has so well pointed out, it seems natural for some people to be unnatural.[14] Even when expression *feels* right to the speaker, it may not be adequate as communication, may not deliver to the hearers what he wishes and intends to deliver, and may not seem natural to them.

When, however, our student is reading the thoughts of another, interpreting a poem, or acting a part in a play, the injunction to be natural has little more value or applicability than it has for riding a bicycle or shifting gears. It is not natural for one to speak in rhyme or blank verse, or to think, feel, or behave as Hamlet or Macbeth. And the highly imaginative language of poetry is in no sense for the average person a normal medium of expression. These are not, like eating, sleeping, and talking, instinctive activities such as all normal human beings engage in. It is natural, of course, as is sometimes argued, for children to act, and perhaps also for adults—and puppies and kittens—but it is *not* natural for them to act parts in plays that others have designed for them. The early elocutionists —Mason, Burgh, Sheridan, Rice, Enfield, and Walker—taught that the pattern of *reading* should be based upon the reader's practice in energetic conversation,[15] a method which Rush disparaged as mere "self-imitation." And some of them taught that poetry should be read exactly as if it were prose. But most of them were aware that it is not *natural* or easy for one to read as if he were speaking, or, as Whately put it many years later, "It is by no means natural for any one to *read* as if he were *not* reading, but speaking."[16] And Walker and Sheridan at least were aware that poetry poses additional problems for the reader.

There are involved here two applications of "naturalness" which may lead to different, and even contradictory, results. When we instruct a student to read naturally we can only mean that he is to speak and behave as he ordinarily does, that he is to be himself. But when we praise a reader's performance for its naturalness we probably mean something quite different, since we may not know what his ordinary, or customary speaking is like. We mean rather that it *seems* natural—seems appropriate to the material or the character he is representing. The interpreter, especially if he aspires to be a "creative artist," must not, then, merely yield to his own raw instinct, but must design a pattern of expression that will conform to the audience's conception of what is natural for the given content and situation, and then express the meaning of his selection through this pre-designed pattern. Such expression may not *feel* natural to the reader, may not conform to his instinctive or accustomed manner of speech, for in this sense "naturalness" is not necessarily good. Natural speech is good speech when it *seems* natural to a

[14] *Public Speaking*, New York, 1917, pp. 28-30.

[15] William Cockin is an exception. He argued, in his *Art of Delivering Written Language*, 1775, that Nature prescribes one manner for speaking, and a different one for reading.

[16] *Elements of Rhetoric*, Part IV, I, 9.

properly qualified audience—or, what is the same thing, to a properly qualified teacher.

The limits of this paper do not permit a definition of these qualifications here.

Second, we must distinguish between a natural performance as just defined, and a natural method of achieving such a performance. Just as a reader may by following a spontaneous natural method achieve an unnatural result, so he may by an unnatural, or even mechanical method achieve a performance that will seem natural. Whether in self-instruction, or instruction by a teacher, the difference between a natural and a mechanical method is not easy to define. Burgh has been decried as a mechanist because he described the normal expression of the passions, and Walker because he formulated rules of expression, and Rush because of his detailed analysis of vocal action. Does a *description* of normal expression or a formulation of rules for it, make one a mechanist? If so, who of us shall escape the charge of being mechanical? We look upon Whately and Winans as dyed-in-the-wool naturalists, but Whately points out which words are to be emphasized in a passage of the *Liturgy*, and his text is peppered with words in italics, which, I take it, is an indication to the reader that those words are emphatic. And Winans prescribes the rule that, "The speaker should look at his hearers squarely," and he instructs the student in preparation to "indicate" echoes, new ideas, contrasts, phrase limits, etc.—details that are sure to remain in his mind while he is performing. It is not a simple matter to distinguish between a natural and a mechanical method of teaching. And I cannot agree with Professor Guthrie that there was, or is, a "sharp conflict" between them, any more than I can agree with him that only one school held "that the best delivery was to be gained from 'nature'."[17]

Perhaps it is not as important to distinguish between the two methods as many of us have supposed. It would be easy to say that the end result is all that counts, and that it does not matter whether we achieve naturalness by a natural or a mechanical method. But we do not want our pupils to be mere puppets, manipulating their arms and voices for purposes that they do not understand. They should themselves appreciate what they read, as well as arouse appreciation in their hearers. Our obligations as teachers should have priority over our obligations as coaches. And so, it seems to me, that we should prefer a method that helps to concentrate the reader's attention on meaning over one that does not. If this is so, then any device or scheme that helps to keep the meaning in the reader's focus of attention should be unexceptionable even if it is mechanical. I cannot share Professor Winans' contempt for the practice, recommended by Sheridan, of sometimes marking on the manuscript an emphatic word or a pause. Such a notation made by the student during his preparation may be very helpful in *reminding* him amid the distractions of the platform of a meaning he would otherwise miss. Following mechanically someone else's notation is, of course, a quite different matter. I would observe also that the average student when he does understand what he reads, and has his mind on it as he reads, will generally communicate the meaning adequately. The result is that we actually give, and need to give, very little time to teaching elocution. Perhaps ninety per cent of our effort goes to teaching the meaning of literature, call it grammar, rhetoric, linguis-

[17] See Warren Guthrie, "The Elocutionary Movement — England," *Speech Monographs*, XVIII (March 1951), 30.

tic structure, literary criticism, or what you will. Primarily we are teachers, not of elocution, but of interpretation.

A third topic that needs examination is the "natural" expression of emotion. Goldsmith said that a man is eloquent if he transfers his feelings and emotions into the breast of another. Many of us have said the same thing about the interpretation of literature. We assume, with Wordsworth, that poetry is the spontaneous overflow of powerful feeling. A poet feels deeply and transfers his emotions to paper; the reader recreates these emotions and transfers them to his audience. In drama there is a fourth participant, the emotion passing from Shakespeare, to Hamlet, to Olivier, to the audience. It seems to work like an old fashioned bucket brigade; the reader seizes the emotion from the poet and pours it over the audience. Or rather the reader must drench himself with the emotion and by this means drown the audience in tears. He is supposed to feel the emotion, and give it his natural expression so that the audience may feel it too.

A little reflection should make it clear that this view of the transference of emotion is quite untenable. In the first place, the poet may not intend that the readers feel the emotion he represents; he may often want them to feel a quite different emotion. Certainly Shakespeare did not intend to infuse the savage murderous rage of Macbeth into his audience's breast. And Wordsworth did not intend by his sonnet on sleep to give his readers insomnia. It is true that a strong expression of emotion stimulates emotion in the observer, but not necessarily the *same* emotion. An expression of anger may be designed to arouse our pity. The soldier's fear may arouse the general's wrath. A woman's grief may move us only to disgust, or pity, or mirth. So the interpreter, if in fact he does feel an emotion, may not wish to transfer it to his audience.

And, of course, it is not necessary that an actor or interpreter feel emotion in order to move his audience, for audiences we well know can be deeply moved by painted puppets or animated drawings.

I have been examining lately some of the writings of the "modern" critics, T. S. Eliot and those who follow in his train. A good deal of their work is nearly unintelligible to a layman, and seems to be intended for private circulation within their own coterie. But it is good to find that literary critics have turned their attention from biography and social background and have begun to examine literature itself—which is what we teachers of interpretation have been doing all along. Mr. Eliot has made a profound impression with his "objective correlative," though it seems to me to be merely a new name for a long familiar notion. It is the doctrine, set forth in his essay "Hamlet and his Problems," that when certain external facts that are the formula for a particular emotion are presented "the emotion is immediately evoked." It is difficult to see how this squares with his statement in another essay, "Tradition and the Individual Talent," that "Poetry is not a turning loose of emotion, but an escape from emotion; it is not the expression of personality, but an escape from personality."

Some modern critics, however, not blinded by Eliot's glamour, have done a very great service by clarifying for us the place of emotion in poetry. Professor Eliseo Vivas points out that the doctrine of the objective correlative is also in conflict with Eliot's statement that "the end of the enjoyment of poetry is a pure contemplation from which all the accidents of personal emotion are re-

moved." He argues that there is a difference between *arousing* emotion and merely *expressing* it, that the poet may never have felt the emotion he expresses, that the reader can appreciate a poem without feeling emotion, and that emotion "is not, and should not be, the chief or exclusive interest of the reader," that "surface, formal, and ideational elements" are also important.[18]

Other critics also indicate that we should direct our energy to vivid contemplation of the poem and be less preoccupied with emotion. Professor Elder Olson says that "our emotions are determined by the object of imitation," and result from our vivid contemplation of it.[19] Wimsatt and Beardsley say that "Poetry is characteristically a discourse about both emotions and objects, or about the emotive quality of objects, and this through its preoccupation with symbol and metaphor."[20] And D. G. James says that emotional and intellectual elements are only "part of a total experience central to which is imaginative prehension," and that "the primary fact about poetry is that in and through it an imaginative object is conveyed."[21]

Surely, then, poetry is not merely a spontaneous overflow of emotion. That other well-known phrase of Wordsworth's comes nearer the truth: poetry is emotion "recollected in tranquility." The emotion which may have inspired the poet to write, if indeed he started from an emotion, is sure to be modified, refined, and disciplined as he selects his images and moulds them into the poetic form he has chosen for his expression. It follows that most of our talk about the actor or reader giving free vent to his natural feeling becomes quite pointless. The interpreter should not let his emotions overflow or try to cultivate goose pimples as he reads. Rather he should concentrate on presenting vividly for the "pure contemplation" of his hearers the images through which the poet works, allowing them to have what effect they may upon the audience.

In summary, I have tried to say that naturalness in interpretation is to be approved, not when it feels natural to the reader, but when it seems natural to the hearer; second, that any method of teaching, natural or mechanical, is to be approved that results in interpretation that seems natural, and keeps the interpreter's attention on meaning; and, third, that since the poet may not feel the emotion he expresses, and may not intend to arouse that particular emotion, if any, in his readers, and since emotion is only one of several elements in poetry, the interpreter had better ignore his own feelings, and concentrate on expressing clearly all the elements that the poem contains—idea, image, rhythm, pattern, sound, *and* emotion—and allow them to do their work upon the hearers.

18 "The Objective Correlative of T. S. Eliot," in R. W. Stallman's *Critiques and Essays in Criticism* (New York, 1949), pp. 389-400.
19 "An Outline of Poetic Theory," *ibid.*, p 274.
20 "The Affective Fallacy," *ibid.*, p. 410.
21 "I. A. Richards," *Ibid.*, p. 487.

COMMENTARIES

THE PLAIN WAY OF DELIVERY

. . . Aristophanes, the grammarian, was quite out when he reprehended Epicurus for his plain way of delivering himself, and the design of his oratory, which was only perspicuity of speech. The imitation of words, by its own facility, immediately disperses itself through a whole people; but the imitation of inventing and fitly applying those words, is of a slower progress. . . .—Michel Eyquem de Montaigne, *Essays*, Book I, Chapter XXV, "Of the Education of Children."

ANDREW JOHNSON AT CLEVELAND AND ST. LOUIS, 1866: A STUDY IN TEXTUAL AUTHENTICITY

Gregg Phifer

DURING the congressional campaign of 1866 President Andrew Johnson swung around the circle of the northern states defending presidential reconstruction against the attacks of his Radical Republican opponents. Most of his more than a hundred speeches were brief statements from temporary stands or the rear platform of his train. Along the route, however, Johnson made about twenty major addresses, ranging in length from twenty minutes to more than an hour. The response of his immediate audience was varied, but his victorious congressional opponents made two of his speeches—those at Cleveland and St. Louis—a basis for impeachment proceedings.

The House of Representatives voted impeachment on March 3, 1868. Article X of their charges declared that Andrew Johnson did

> make and deliver with a loud voice certain intemperate, inflammatory, and scandalous harangues, and did therein utter loud threats and bitter menaces as well against Congress as the laws of the United States duly enacted thereby, amid the cries, jeers, and laughter of the multitudes then assembled and within hearing. . . .

These "utterances, declarations, threats, and harangues" were "peculiarly indecent and unbecoming in the Chief Magistrate" and constituted a "high misdemeanor in office" for which he should be removed.[1]

Thus the President's speeches on his famous 1866 swing around the circle became one of the major issues of his trial before the Senate of the United States. This trial record, printed as a supplement to the *Congressional Globe*,[2] provides a mass of evidence by which the rhetorical critic may evaluate the textual authenticity of two of Johnson's speeches on his tour. Examined under oath by House Manager Ben Butler and cross-examined by the President's counsel, the original reporters revealed the strengths and weaknesses of their texts.[3]

Johnson's speeches at Cleveland on September 3, 1866, and at St. Louis on September 8—those offered as evidence by the prosecution at the impeachment trial—are also the only two speeches of the swing around the circle readily available. Both are printed in the trial record, and the one at St. Louis appears also in the collections of Brewer and Depew.[4] In the following evaluation other contemporary reports from these

Mr. Phifer (Ph.D., Iowa, 1949) is Assistant Professor of Speech at the Florida State University, Tallahassee. *This article is based on his doctoral dissertation entitled "The Last Stand of Presidential Reconstruction: Andrew Johnson's Swing Around the Circle in the Fall of 1866."*

[1] *House Miscellaneous Document* 91, 40th Congress, 2nd Session.

[2] *Supplement to the Congressional Globe: The Trial of Andrew Johnson* (1868), 40th Congress, 2nd Session. Hereafter referred to as *Trial*.

[3] For earlier testimony by the same witnesses, see the *Impeachment Investigation* before the judiciary committee of the House of Representatives, 39th Congress, 2nd Session, and 40th Congress, 1st Session; Reports of Committees, 7.

[4] David J. Brewer, *The World's Best Orations* (Chicago, 1923), VII, 170-177. Chauncey M. Depew, *The Library of Oratory* (New York, 1902), VII, 364-380. Johnson's speeches at New York, Cleveland, and St. Louis are printed in Edward McPherson, *The Political History of the United States of America During the Period of the Reconstruction* (Washington, 1871). McPherson credits no sources, and no two versions of the New York speech are much alike.

and neighboring cities supplement testimony at the trial.

Johnson's Speech at Cleveland

Johnson made his first major middle-western speech of the 1866 campaign[5] from the balcony of the Kennard House in Cleveland. All three local papers sent reporters: William Hudson of the Radical Republican *Leader*, Everett D. Stark of the fence-sitting *Herald*, and an unidentified reporter for the Democratic *Plain Dealer*. Also listening professionally were Lawrence A. Gobright of the Associated Press, Daniel C. McEwen of the Democratic New York *World*, and other "specials" accompanying the presidential party.[6] These are some of the difficulties they faced:

A. *Hearing the President.* No special place was reserved for reporters. No public-address system aided the President's voice. Ordinarily Johnson could be heard easily, but in Cleveland crowd calls and interruptions, as well as the natural confusion of the late evening hour, made hearing difficult.[7] McEwen was doubtful about many words. Once he confessed in writing, "the confusion prevented the reporter from hearing the remainder of the sentence."[8]

This same difficulty confronted reporters at other places on the presidential tour. Interruptions from the crowd were equally frequent and loud at St. Louis. And on the day Johnson left Cleveland his train stopped at Norwalk, Ohio, for a brief rear-platform address. According to the Norwalk *Reflector*, "President Johnson . . . could be heard by only a very few in his immediate vicinity, owing to the great excitement and confusion."[9]

B. *Reporting the speech.* No desks or other conveniences were provided for the reporters, who were left to take notes as best they could. Crowds pushing in from all sides made writing difficult. Torches, transparencies, Chinese lanterns, and gas lights provided fitful illumination. Under questioning by William M. Evarts, one of the President's lawyers, Editor Hudson of the *Leader* described some of his problems:

Q. At what time was this speech made? . . .
A. About nine in the evening. . . .
Q. When did it conclude?
A. I think about a quarter before ten.
Q. And was there a large crowd there?
A. There was.
Q. Of the people of Cleveland?
A. Of the people of Cleveland and surrounding towns.
Q. Was this balcony from which the President spoke also crowded?
A. Yes.
Q. And where were you?
A. I was upon the balcony.
Q. What convenience or arrangement had you for taking notes?
A. I took my notes upon my knee as I sat.
Q. Where did you get light from?
A. From the gas above.[10]

Many reporters had no skill at phonography (shorthand) but wrote long-hand. Evarts seemed surprised to discover this as he continued to question Hudson about his reporting methods:

Q. Are you prepared to say that you observed in comparing your printed paper of that morning with your phonographic notes that the printed paper was absolutely accurate?
A. My notes were not phonographic.
Q. What are they?
A. They were made in writing.
Q. Written out in long-hand?
A. Yes.
Q. Do you mean to say, sir, that you can write out in long-hand, word for word, a speech as it comes from the mouth of a speaker?
A. I mean to say that in this instance I did

[5] Johnson campaigned against Radical Republican candidates in the congressional elections.

[6] *Trial, passim.* Chicago *Times*, September 6. All newspaper dates are 1866.

[7] For detailed descriptions see the *Herald*, *Leader*, or *Plain Dealer* for September 4.

[8] *Trial*, pp. 107-110.

[9] September 11.

[10] *Trial*, p. 101.

parts of the speech. . . . Whenever it was possible to report accurately and fully, I did so. When I was unable to keep up with the speaker, I gave the substance as I could give it. There were times during the speech when, owing to the slowness with which the speaker spoke and the interruptions, a reporter was able to keep up with long-hand with the remarks of the President. . . .

Q. Can you say anything more than this, that you intended to report as nearly as you could and as well, under the circumstances, without the aid of short-hand faculty, what the President said? . . .

A. I cannot swear that it is the absolute language in all cases. I can swear that it is an accurate report.

Q. What do you mean by an accurate report, and not an absolute report?

A. I mean to say a report which gives the general form of each sentence as it was uttered, perhaps varying in one or two words occasionally.

Having established that Hudson had not made a word-by-word transcript, Evarts probed for more damaging admissions:

Q. What assurance have you that some portions of the speech are not omitted entirely from your synoptical view?

A. I was able to take notes of nearly every sentence uttered by the President, and I am confident that I did not fail to take notes of at least any paragraph of the speech.

Q. Any paragraph of the speech! That is to say, you are confident that nothing that would have been a paragraph after it was printed was left out by you?

A. Yes, sir.

Q. He did not speak in paragraphs, did he?

A. Of course not.

Q. You are sure you did not leave out what would be the whole of a paragraph; did you leave out what would be half of a paragraph?

A. I endeavored to state the substance of the President's remarks on each subject which he took up. . . .

Q. Now, was this synoptical report that you wrote out anything but your original notes that you wrote out that night?

A. Condensed from them.

Q. Condensed from your original notes?

A. Yes, sir.

Q. That is to say, your original synoptical view, as written down, was again reduced in a shorter compend by you that night?

A. The part of the speech so reported.

Q. And still you think that in this last analysis you have the whole of the President's speech?

A. I endeavored to state his meaning.

Q. Now, can you pretend to say, sir, that in respect to any of that portion of your report, it is presented in a shape in which any man should be judged as coming from his own mouth?[11]

Further questioning revealed that Hudson's text was a synopsis of two synopses, his own notes integrated with those of a *Leader* reporter named Johnson. Thus the President's counsel threw doubt on Hudson's report; it was a summary, not a verbatim report. Stark of the *Herald* did no better; he confessed, moreover, that he did not always distinguish clearly between the verbatim portions of his report and summary or "synoptical" portions.[12]

Witnesses at the trial included two shorthand reporters assigned to the Cleveland speech: Stark of the *Herald* and McEwen of the New York *World*. Stark's text had several limitations to be described a little later. McEwen left before the speech ended but until that time attempted to make a word-for-word transcript, including "the principal exclamations of the crowd." As Evarts cross-examined the *World* reporter, he learned why brackets indicating uncertainty enclose so many words in McEwen's transcript:

Q. When did you make the copy or transcript that you produce here?

A. I made that about two weeks since, after I was summoned before the Managers of the impeachment, and gave evidence concerning the speech there.

Q. Can you be as accurate or as confident in a transcript made after a lapse of two years as if it had been made presently, when the speech was fresh?

A. I generally find that when a speech is fresh in my mind I read the notes with more

[11] *Trial*, pp. 101-102.
[12] *Trial*, p. 106.

readiness than when they become old; but as to the accuracy of the report I think I can make as accurate a transcript of the notes now as at that time.

Q. When you transcribe after the lapse of time you have nothing to help you except the figures that are before you in your notes?

A. That is all, with me.

Q. Are you not aware that in phonographic reporting there is frequent obscurity in the haste and brevity of the notation?

A. There sometimes is.[13]

C. *Bias of the reporter.* Two of the three speech texts submitted by the House managers at the impeachment trial were admittedly synopses by two opponents of President Johnson's policies: Reporters Hudson and Stark. In their own words both men sought to give the "substance" of the President's "paragraphs." This being so, would not the bias of the mind through which the "substance" passed affect the accuracy of the product? The President's attorneys thought so, and asked Stark, Cleveland lawyer and shorthand reporter, these questions:

Q. What was your rule in respect to what you put *verbatim* into your report and what you condensed? How did you determine which parts you would treat in one way or the other?

A. Well, sir, perhaps I was influenced somewhat by what I considered would be a little more spicy or entertaining to the reader.

Q. In which interest, that of the President or his opponents?

A. Well, I do not know that.

Q. Which side were you on?

A. I was opposed to the President.

Q. But you do not know which you thought the interest was you selected the spicy part for?[14]

D. *Pressure of the deadline.* Because of the late evening hour of the Cleveland speech, reporters worked against the deadlines of their papers. McEwen began a verbatim stenographic report: but when Johnson's speech ran beyond the *World's* deadline, McEwen gave up and left before the end. Not until 1868 did he even transcribe his notes. Stark of the *Herald,* the other stenographic reporter, attempted only a synopsis but had to cut even this as the *Herald's* deadline neared. Here is the pertinent testimony at the trial:

A. . . . it was getting on between three and four o'clock, and I was directed to cut down toward the last, and I did so more toward the last than I did in the earlier parts of the speech.

Q. In order to be ready for the press?

A. In order to be ready for the morning press.[15]

E. *Other problems.* None of these speech texts were affected by telegraphic transmission; all except McEwen's, which was not published at the time, were printed in Cleveland. Speech texts telegraphed to other cities were sometimes seriously modified during transmission. Quotation marks or brackets used to enclose crowd remarks could easily be omitted. For example, those who telegraphed Johnson's Niagara Falls speech made him express pleasure at the way he became President. Actually, after Johnson's remarks about Lincoln's assassination, *a voice in the crowd* called out, "I am glad of it." Brackets had been lost in the telegraphing of the speech.[16]

Another possible source of error was absent, since neither the President nor his advisers ever touched a reporter's transcript. So testified Lawrence A. Gobright, Associated Press agent, who accompanied the presidential party throughout.[17]

These three capable reporters, all declaring they tried to report the President's speech accurately, faced severe handicaps. None of the Cleveland texts is entirely satisfactory. McEwen's is in-

[13] *Trial,* pp. 104-105.
[14] *Trial,* p. 106.
[15] *Trial,* p. 106.
[16] Buffalo *Advertiser,* quoted in the Cleveland *Plain Dealer,* September 11.
[17] *Trial,* p. 210.

complete, and, because of his two-year delay in transcribing his shorthand notes, many words are only guesses at what the President said. Hudson combined his incomplete longhand synopsis with that of another *Leader* reporter to make as good a summary as possible. Stark, a shorthand reporter, did not attempt to record every word, and had to condense even his notes because of his deadline.

Of the three texts, McEwen's is clearly the fullest and probably the best. A direct comparison of the Stark and Hudson texts with that by McEwen shows many omissions and differences in language. All three, however, are in general agreement both on Johnson's arguments and on the tone of the speaker-audience relationship.

Despite the protests by the President's attorneys in the impeachment trial, and despite the obvious limitations of the reporting of Johnson's Cleveland speech, Radical Republicans who controlled the Senate admitted these speech texts as evidence. If the Senate sat in the impeachment trial as a court of law, these speech transcripts probably contain enough inaccuracies and reflect enough bias to deny them admission as evidence. If the Senate sat as a politico-judicial body, as Sumner and Stevens insisted, then the admission of the Cleveland texts seems quite proper.

Johnson's Speech at St. Louis

House managers of the impeachment had an easier time with Johnson's St. Louis speech of Saturday, September 8. Instead of three versions they submitted only one—that prepared by L. L. Walbridge and published in the Sunday *Missouri Republican* and Monday *Missouri Democrat*.[18]

[18] *Trial*, pp. 112-113.

A. *A complete verbatim report.* As the impeachment trial proceeded to consider Johnson's speech at St. Louis, House Manager Butler first called the reporter who was responsible. Walbridge, a shorthand reporter with ten years' experience at newspaper and court reporting, testified that on the evening of September 8 he had covered the President's speech from the balcony of the Southern Hotel in St. Louis. He was on the balcony "within two or three feet of the President while he was speaking." His testimony continued:

Q. Did you take a report of that speech?
A. I did.
Q. How fully?
A. I took every word.
Q. After it was taken, how soon was it written out?
A. Immediately.
Q. How was it written out?
A. At my dictation.
Q. By whom?
A. The first part of the speech previous to the banquet was written out in one of the rooms of the Southern Hotel. That occupied about half an hour, I think. We then attended the banquet, at which other speeches were made. Immediately after the conclusion of the banquet we went to the Republican office and there I dictated the speech to Mr. Monahan and Mr. McHenry, two attachés of the Republican.

The speech was first printed in the Sunday *Republican* and then:

Q. After it was published did you revise the publication by your notes?
A. I did.
Q. How soon?
A. Immediately after the speech was printed in the Sunday morning Republican, I went to the Democrat office in company with my associate, Mr. Edmund T. Allen, and we very carefully revised the speech for the Monday morning Democrat.
Q. Then it was on the same Sunday that you made the revision?
A. Yes, sir; the Sunday after the speech.

A year later the congressional committee investigating the New Orleans riots called Walbridge to Washington. At

that time he hunted up his original notes, compared them with the printed speech, and found the printed copy "perfectly correct." On the witness stand during the impeachment trial he produced for Butler a copy of the *Missouri Democrat* for Monday, September 10.

Q. Is this it?
A. It is.
Q. From your knowledge of the manner in which you took the speech, and from your knowledge of the manner in which you corrected it, state whether you are now enabled to say that this paper which I hold in my hand contains an accurate report of the speech of the President delivered on that occasion?
A. Yes, sir; I am enabled to say it is an accurate report.

Mr. Evarts for the defense cross-examined the witness:

Q. I understand that you took down, as from the President's mouth, the entire speech, word for word, as he delivered it?
A. Yes, sir.
Q. In the transcript from your notes and in this publication did you preserve that form and degree of accuracy and completeness? Is it all the speech?
A. It is the whole speech.
Q. No part of it is condensed or paraphrased?
A. No, sir; the whole speech is there in complete form.[19]

B. *Missouri Democrat praises Republican text.* With its publication of the St. Louis text on Monday, September 10, the *Missouri Democrat* boasted:

> We give elsewhere a perfectly accurate report of his speech, word for word as he uttered it—with no corrections of grammar or style. This we do, simply because the people have a right to see the speech exactly as it was delivered. . . .

Two days later, on Wednesday, September 12, the *Democrat* praised the rival *Republican:*

> We are delighted to perceive that the whole country is reading Johnson's St. Louis speech, very much as it was uttered. The Republican states that an entire column account of the reception was telegraphed to the Associated Press, but it does not state that two columns and a half of it was the full report of the Humble speech as printed in the Republican. The excessive modesty of our neighbor should not prevent the fact from being known that the world is indebted to that paper for the very correct report of this extra-ordinary diatribe.

Taken at face value, the *Democrat's* praise constitutes reluctant testimony almost guaranteeing the authenticity of the *Republican* text. The following section, however, presents a better explanation.

C. *Johnson's grammar and pronunciation.* Even though in this case Walbridge's report was published first by the pro-administration *Republican,*[20] he carefully preserved what eccentricities he heard in the President's grammar and pronunciation, testifying in the trial that he was able to do so accurately.

Johnson's journalistic supporters in St. Louis did not agree with Walbridge. Owner George Knapp of the *Missouri Republican* ordered his principal reporter, Henry F. Zider, to correct the Sunday *Republican* report (prepared by Walbridge and including grammar and pronunciation as he heard them) for republication Monday. Zider, himself a shorthand reporter who had hired Walbridge as an assistant, testified:

A. I went over the same report [Walbridge's] on Sunday afternoon and made several alterations in it for the Monday morning paper.
Q. The Monday morning Republican?
A. Yes, sir. I made the corrections from my own notes.
Q. Did you make any corrections except those which you found were required by your own notes?
A. There were three or four corrections that the printers did not make that I had marked on the proof sheets that I made on the paper the following morning in the counting-room.

[19] *Trial,* pp. 111-112.

[20] Those familiar with 1866 politics will recognize that St. Louis newspaper labels were reversed. Most Republican papers opposed, and Democratic papers favored, Johnson and his policies.

According to Zider, Walbridge had unjustly made Johnson guilty of grammatical errors *(things was, it don't)* and eccentric pronunciations *(Jud-a-a-s, ware, ya-a-s)*.[21]

Praise given the *Republican* by its rival *Democrat* on Wednesday, therefore, was actually tongue-in-cheek gloating. The *Republican* had blundered, telegraphing to Associated Press members throughout the country Walbridge's unexpurgated version of the St. Louis speech. This text, printed in the Sunday *Republican,* includes Johnson's grammatical errors and mocks his pronunciation. The *Republican's* Monday republication corrected Johnson's grammar and eliminated Walbridge's attempts at phonetic spelling.

Others of Johnson's speeches on the swing around the circle were sometimes revised for publication. Joseph A. Dear testified that he corrected grammatical errors in reporting the Alton, Illinois, speech for the Democratic St. Louis *Times*.[22] Likewise the Radical Republican Albany (New York) *Morning Express* printed Johnson's speech there, explaining: "We have given a verbatim report of his speech, except that we have left out many of his repetitions and corrected the grammar somewhat."[23]

D. *Defense counsel shifted ground.* Zider closed the testimony on Johnson's St. Louis speech. The President's attorneys had shown that some papers lampooned Johnson's manner of speaking. Ben Butler emphasized that Zider criticized details of grammar and pronunciation, not the substance of Walbridge's report.

Defense counsel had sought to reject the Cleveland texts as evidence, but the effort was blocked by the topheavy Radical Republican majority in the Senate. Confronted by a well-authenticated text for Johnson's St. Louis speech, the President's attorneys shifted to a new defense line. Even if the texts were accurate, they asked, should the President be blamed for his natural reaction to the heckling he received and the excitement of the occasion?

Summary Evaluation

Aside from newspaper accounts, the only valuable narrative of Johnson's 1866 swing around the circle is in the *Diary of Gideon Welles.* Johnson's faithful Secretary of the Navy, who was one of the party, thought most newspaper accounts were biased:

> The newspapers of the day give detailed statements of our journey, the places at which we stopped, generally the introductions that were made, and caricatured statements of speeches that were delivered.[24]

Apparently the President agreed, since on his speaking tour he frequently attacked the "mendacious" press which "misrepresented and traduced" him.[25]

The best available evidence does not support the Johnson-Welles view so far as speech texts are concerned. Most of the caricature and much of the inaccuracy came in newspaper headlines and descriptions of the tour. Despite their almost inevitable and nearly always anti-administration[26] bias, most papers assigned their best reporters and prided themselves on printing accurate speech texts. Radical Republican editors thought Johnson would hang himself if

21 *Trial,* pp. 212-215.
22 *Trial,* p. 115.
23 August 31.

24 Gideon Welles, *Diary of Gideon Welles* (Boston, 1911), II, 588.
25 "A Revised Republication" of the Cleveland speech, Cleveland *Leader,* September 12. Similar attacks were made at New York, Auburn, St. Louis, Indianapolis, Louisville, Columbus, and Baltimore.
26 "With few exceptions—so few as to be relatively insignificant—the press of the country has sided with Congress in the issue raised by the President." *The Nation,* II (March 15, 1866), 321.

given enough rope, and on this theory proceeded to supply the rope.

It is true that 1866 reporters faced serious handicaps in covering the President's speaking tour. Crowd noise and interruptions interfered with hearing; lack of space or desks made writing difficult. Reporters had to meet deadlines, even though speech texts suffered. Only large papers could afford capable (though seldom unbiased) shorthand reporters. Synopses are especially suspect, but even verbatim reports showed differences over questions like these: Should the President's grammar be reported exactly? Should his pronunciation and articulation eccentricities be reproduced?

The Walbridge text for the St. Louis speech, reprinted by both Depew and Brewer, provides an authentic report of Andrew Johnson's stump speaking. The President's grammar *had* serious limitations, and Johnson *was* a Tennessean speaking to northern audiences. His pronunciation was undoubtedly different from that prevailing in the North.

Except for the missing conclusion and frequent uncertainty in word choice, the McEwen text of the Cleveland speech is also good. The Hudson and Stark texts state Johnson's arguments reasonably well but do not pretend to include everything verbatim. Both reporters undoubtedly tried to reproduce Johnson's key arguments in his own words, but an onrushing deadline (Stark) and lack of shorthand skill (Hudson) limited their achievement.

Newspaper reports—the only available texts—for others of Johnson's speeches probably range in accuracy from the best of these described here (Walbridge's) to the worst (probably Stark's, possibly Hudson's). Some were verbatim;[27] some were synopses.[28] All seem to be genuine attempts, even by the opposition press, to report as accurately and fully as possible what the President of the United States had to say.

[27] The New York *Daily Tribune* (August 29) text for Johnson's Philadelphia speech seems to be a verbatim report, as does the Louisville *Daily Journal* (September 12) report of his speech there.

[28] The Buffalo *Daily Courier* (August 29) published the abridged Associated Press version of Johnson's Philadelphia speech. The Chicago *Republican* (September 12) printed an abridged version of the Louisville speech.

COMMENTARIES

REPORTING THE TEXTS OF SPEECHES

As to the speeches which were made either before or during the war, it was hard for me, and for others who reported them to me, to recollect the exact words. I have therefore put into the mouth of each speaker the sentiments proper to the occasion, expressed as I thought he would be likely to express them, while at the same time I endeavored, as nearly as I could, to give the general purport of what was actually said. —Thucydides, *History of the Peloponnesian War,* Book I, Chapter I.

THE RELATION OF STYLE TO TRUTH

. . . neither ought any thing to seem to be spoken truly, because eloquently; nor therefore falsely, because the utterance of the lips is inharmonious; nor, again, therefore true, because rudely delivered; nor therefore false, because the language is rich; but that wisdom and folly, are as wholesome and unwholesome food; and adorned or unadorned phrases, as courtly or country vessels; either kind of meats may be served up in either kind of dishes.—Augustine, Bishop of Hippo, *Confessions,* Book V, [VI.], 10.

DISCUSSION IN AGRICULTURE

Martin P. Andersen

TEACHERS of speech, increasingly aware of the growing body of knowledge about the use of discussion in public affairs, found in the *Adult Education Bulletin* for February, 1949, articles pertaining to discussion in the armed forces, the administrative process, the United Nations, collective bargaining, and citizens' roundtables, but no consideration of discussion in agriculture. Yet the concept of discussion has deeper roots in agriculture than in the armed forces, in collective bargaining, or in the administrative process. Both quantitatively and qualitatively discussion as problem-solving has had ramifications in agriculture as important as in any other area of our national life.[1] Therefore persons interested in speech and adult education should be aware of the extent, nature, and function of discussion in promoting the welfare of farm people in America.

During the past quarter-century we have witnessed revolutionary social, economic, and political changes which are especially noticeable in agriculture, where variations in foreign markets, federal action programs, and post-war readjustments have prevented farmers from maintaining the isolation possible even as late as World War I. Since 1920, farm people have come to recognize the need for intelligent understanding of problems confronting agriculture. As A. D. Jones observed,

> Whether they liked it or not, there came suddenly the consciousness that instead of being a separate economic group they were an active and integrated part of the total American scene. To comprehend that scene and to recognize the forces that caused its complications became a prime necessity for rural people. Deliberately, through their organizations and with the help of their numerous official agencies, they set out to accomplish this understanding.[2]

Although an extensive program of discussion was underway in many states before the United States Department of Agriculture first promoted it in 1935, the activities of that agency form a pattern typical of many state programs. When the extension program of the Department of Agriculture was first launched in 1914, the goal was to persuade farmers to adopt more scientific and approved "practices." Extension education was primarily a job of salesmanship, and the methods used were the demonstration and the lecture. As Hendrickson says,

> . . . during the many years when adult teaching through rural extension services was concerned almost entirely with the spreading of scientific information and short cuts to lower costs, discussion hardly thrived. The demonstration method "put the idea across." "Preaching" clinched the point.[3]

Gradually, however, the agricultural extension program began to emphasize the social, economic, and cultural aspects of farm life. By 1933 it was apparent that if agricultural extension was to continue to reflect the wishes of farm people, new teaching techniques must be employed. The opportunity came

Mr. Andersen (Ph.D., Wisconsin, 1947) is Assistant Professor of Speech and Head of the Department of Conferences and Special Activities in the Extension Division of the University of California at Los Angeles.

[1] See A. Drummond Jones, "Farmer Discussion is Adult Education," *Adult Education Bull.*, V (June 1941), 121-125.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 121.

[3] Roy F. Hendrickson, "A Crop of New Ideas on the Farm," *Jour. of Adult Education*, VIII (April 1936), 177.

with the establishment of the Agricultural Adjustment Act.

Conditions in agriculture in the early thirties were critical, and farm leaders were planning federal legislation to bring about some relief. Their plans stressed decentralization of administration and democratic participation in decision making by the farmers. As finally adopted, the Agricultural Adjustment Act gave farmers the responsibility for making state and national plans which reflected local opinion. In 1934, to "stimulate even more thinking along the lines of the broader implications of the national agricultural program,"[4] M. L. Wilson, Under-secretary of Agriculture, initiated plans for an experiment in discussion which involved the land grant colleges in North Carolina, Minnesota, Ohio, Kansas, Utah, Iowa, New York, Oklahoma, and Washington. By November, 1935, forty land grant colleges participated in the program.[5] The program grew until it was estimated in 1940 that over two million farm people each year were participating in some form of organized discussion.[6]

Discussion in agriculture has three phases: (1) acquiring information about problems to be discussed, (2) acquiring skill in leading discussion, and (3) using discussion as a device for problem-solving. Discussion group members must be informed on all sides of a question if they are to think and act wisely. This information may come from personal experience and observation, from speeches by experts, or from printed materials. When the Department of Agriculture first decided to promote discussion, its leaders were aware of the need for factual information and for a type of publication which would present evidence on different aspects of a problem and stimulate discussion rather than answer questions. In part this need was met through the preparation of pamphlets on topics selected by farm leaders themselves. By 1940 over two million copies of some twenty subject matter pamphlets had been distributed by the Department of Agriculture.[7]

In addition to the federal discussion pamphlets, state Extension Services published materials on topics of state-wide interest. In New York, Illinois, Iowa, Minnesota, Virginia, and Wisconsin considerable attention was paid to this type of service. Although we do not know the total number of different topics on which such pamphlets were prepared, or the total number printed, the record in Wisconsin is revealing. In that state, from 1931 to 1946, over 140,000 discussion guides and bulletins were distributed, in addition to the many thousands of scientific circulars prepared by agricultural specialists.

Other sources of pamphlet material were also available. The national and state offices of the American Farm Bureau Federation, the Grange, and the Farmers' Equity Union distributed discussion materials. Producer and consumer cooperatives developed materials which were frequently used. In some states materials were made available through the Smith-Hughes and George-Dean programs. Besides the Department of Agriculture, other Federal agencies prepared materials on topics directly or indirectly related to agriculture. Many non-agricultural state agencies made their publications available. Pamphlets from industry, business, and labor were frequently used. Printed materials were also provided through the package library loan services of Extension Divisions in some state universities. At the

[4] Carl F. Taeusch, "Schools of Philosophy for Farmers," *Yearbook of Agriculture* (Washington, D. C., 1940), p. 1112.

[5] Hendrickson, p. 180.

[6] Taeusch, p. 1118.

[7] *Ibid.*, p. 1120.

University of Wisconsin during the period 1931-1946 almost 30,000 package loan libraries were distributed to farm people.[8] Where agricultural leaders recognized the necessity for basing discussion on a foundation of fact, all sources were used in an effort to insure effective discussion.

Acquiring skill in leading discussion is a second aspect of discussion in agriculture. An agricultural leader wrote: "The 'bottleneck' of our work lies in the lack of enough discussion leaders—of people who can so lead a meeting or a discussion group as to bring out the wealth of thought which our rural groups possess."[9] To meet this lack, the Bureau of Agricultural Economics established a Division of Program Study and Discussion. This division was responsible for promoting discussion among farmers in general and among the functional farm groups. They also assisted other federal agencies, such as the Farm Security Administration and the Soil Conservation Service in training their staffs in discussion methods.

One activity of the Division of Program Study and Discussion was the project called "Schools of Philosophy," which was designed to assist farm leaders in discussing the broader phases and implications of national agricultural programs. It started in 1936, and by 1940 seventy schools had been held with an aggregate attendance of some 14,000 farm leaders.[10] The influence of these schools is partly indicated by the variety of interests represented by the enrollees. For example, in one year when four schools were held in Wisconsin, the 1309 persons who attended represented ninety different organizations and came from fifty-eight of the seventy-one counties in the state.[11]

The programs for these schools were planned cooperatively with state agricultural leaders. Each school lasted three or four days, with a series of speeches each morning and discussion groups in the afternoons. Local people trained in discussion methods at sessions held before the opening of the schools served as discussion group leaders. Topics for a typical program on "What is a Desirable National Agricultural Program?" included: (1) Backgrounds of the present agricultural program; (2) Regionalism, nationalism, and internationalism; (3) The place of government in modern society; and (4) Problems of social adjustment and administration. These schools were significant in that critics of national agricultural programs participated and were encouraged to be quite candid in their remarks. Differing points of view were thus heard and freely discussed. The schools also helped to keep open a two-way communication process. Grass-roots opinion and national farm policy were exchanged to the benefit of local farmers and national policy makers. Finally, district schools led to further study and discussion activity in county Schools of Philosophy.

Training programs for discussion leaders had been underway in many states before 1935. Some effective programs were those conducted in New York, Illinois, Iowa, Ohio, Minnesota, Virginia, Missouri, and Wisconsin. In all states adaptations were constantly made to meet local needs. Training sessions were set up on a state, regional, county, or local basis. Representatives attended from different organizations, such as the Grange, the Farmers' Union, Parent-Teachers' Associations, 4-H Clubs, AAA

[8] Martin P. Andersen, "A Study of Discussion in Selected Wisconsin Adult Organizations and Public Agencies" (unpub. diss., Univ. of Wis., 1947), p. 562.

[9] Carl F. Taeusch, "Effective Speaking as an Index of Thought," *QJS*, XXVII (April 1941), 197.

[10] Taeusch, *op. cit.* (above, n. 4), p. 1114.

[11] Andersen, p. 575.

Committees, Women's Clubs, and Cooperatives. Training programs were frequently set up for a single functional group within agriculture. On other occasions, training was given the staffs of various agricultural agencies. Training sessions were also held for rural ministers, librarians, rural school teachers, farm youth, members of cooperatives, teachers of vocational agriculture, and social welfare workers.

Besides the efforts of the Extension Service in training discussion leaders, much was done by various farm organizations and cooperatives. The programs of the Farmers' Union in North Dakota and the Farm Bureau in Ohio are outstanding examples.

Most frequently, these training programs followed one of two different plans: consideration was given to discussion methodology only, or theory was combined with a discussion demonstration on a topic chosen by those in attendance. The training team consisted of subject matter and methods specialists. This plan proved quite effective. The entire training session was related to a problem of vital interest to the enrollees; the discussion demonstration simulated closely the conditions which existed in the various organizations represented by the trainees; opportunity was provided for guided practice; optimum participation was sought with a resulting improvement in skill in even a one-day session; and printed materials in both the subject matter and methods fields were made available, or their sources suggested. Every effort was made to provide a balance between theory and practice which would develop skills in discussion, understanding of subject matter, and appreciation of the necessity for a blending of the two as a means to more intelligent opinion among farm people.

Many states prepared special pamphlets dealing with discussion methodology. One of the first of these was prepared by Wileden and Ewbank[12] of the University of Wisconsin. Many others have since been written. Each was designed to give practical suggestions on aspects of discussion which follow closely those found in standard texts.

The use of discussion in solving problems, in resolving differences, and in learning situations is a third phase of discussion in agriculture. During the early years of the Agricultural Adjustment program most non-farmers did not understand its basic principles. In an attempt to acquaint non-farming groups with the agricultural program a project was carried out by the State Conservation Committees and Extension Services in most states in 1938. Farmers and businessmen held meetings at which problems of agriculture were discussed. During one week in Wisconsin county meetings attracted an attendance of 8000 farmers and businessmen.[13] A similar project was the series of "Rural-Urban Women's Conferences on Abundance" sponsored by the Department of Agriculture and State Extension Services. National conferences, such as the annual Des Moines National Farm Forum, reveal a wide diversity of opinion. In many states attempts were made to bring the leaders of agriculture, labor, and industry together to think through common problems in annual meetings and to arrive at some basis for understanding or possibly for action. Discussion guides reflect this insistence on finding and facing all the facts. Although they may not have accepted

[12] Arthur F. Wileden and Henry L. Ewbank, *How to Conduct Group Discussion*, Univ. of Wis. Ext. Circ. 276 (Madison, 1935).

[13] Wisconsin Farmers and Businessmen Reach an Understanding," *Ext. Service Rev.*, IX (August 1938), 114.

them, farmers were aware of points of view other than their own.

Discussion in agriculture is generally action-centered. David E. Lindstrom reports[14] on the effective use of discussion in problem-solving situations in Illinois. A report from Iowa indicates that the quality of legislative representation was improved by a program of Agricultural Forums.[15] Reports from other states indicate that discussion brings understanding which results in actual accomplishment.[16] On a national scale, action-centered discussion was used during the Volunteer War Service program of World War II. In this program over 600,000 farm men and women served as neighborhood leaders. They were responsible for getting urgent war information to a selected group of families, for carrying out action programs in the neighborhood, and relaying back to the county agent problems needing attention.[17] Many of these leaders used the discussion method in conducting small primary groups in which intimate acquaintanceship and "in-group" feeling made discussion thrive. In Ohio, where an extensive discussion program has been carried on through the Farm Bureau Federation, small neighborhood groups are the core unit. About 1500 of these groups are now active. A similar plan is followed by Farm Bureaus in Maryland, Pennsylvania, Vermont, and other states. Discussion is the tool by which problem-solving and learning situations are made socially satisfying.[18] In the 4-H Club program discussion training and discussion activities are now almost as important as the "Club project."[19]

What have been the results of the use of discussion in agriculture? Although it may never be possible to obtain an objective evaluation, certain observations can be made. First, sound application of discussion theory has strengthened democratic procedures in America. Rural people have demonstrated that they are interested in searching for facts and discussing vital issues. More often than not, farmers make a sincere attempt to get facts on all sides of topics considered. Some concede the point that when farmers are given information on all sides of a question their decisions are generally in the best interests of all the people. Discussion allows minority points of view in agriculture to be heard. Generally discussion is used as a means for solving problems rather than as a propaganda technique. It permits farm people to participate in ultimate decisions of policy.

Discussion in agriculture has benefited farmers themselves. It has widened the horizon of their social, economic, and political life. Today the farmer knows more about national and international affairs than at any other time in history. His "civic I-Q" is as great as that of his urban neighbor. He understands and can often influence those outside forces which affect his welfare. The voice of

[14] David E. Lindstrom, "What Do Farmers Want?" *Ext. Service Rev.*, VII (January 1936), 1, 12.

[15] Helen Hill Miller, "Design for Policy Making," *Land Policy Rev.*, III (May-June 1940), 29-31.

[16] See R. K. Bliss, "Two Leaders for 16 Families," *Ext. Service Rev.*, XIII (May 1942), 66; D. C. Dvoracek, "Talking It Over Gives Clearer Understanding," *Ext. Service Rev.*, XVI (December 1945), 189; A. Drummond Jones, "Farmers Forming Discussion Groups in More Than 40 States," *Am. Lib. Assn. Bull.*, XXXIII (March 1939), 165-169; Edgar A. Schuler, "A Workshop That Worked," *Ext. Service Rev.*, XVII (October 1946), 134-135; and "Missouri Farm Folks Discuss Future Extension Problems," *Ext. Service Rev.*, XVII (March 1946), 41.

[17] Edmund deS. Brunner and E. Hsin Pao Yang, *Rural America and The Extension Service*, Bureau of Publications, Teachers Coll. Columbia Univ. (New York 1949), p. 88.

[18] Carl Hutchinson, "Function of the Small Group in the Ohio Farm Bureau," *Autonomous Groups Bull.*, IV, Nos. 2-3 (1948-1949), 16-23.

[19] *National 4-H Club News*, XXIV (January 1946).

agriculture in public forums has thus become increasingly important.

The farmer has discovered the efficiency of discussion as a means of clarifying and solving his problems. Through study and practice he has learned how to utilize the resources available in effecting democratic social action. He understands more readily the function of the leader and expert and their relationship to the group. The farmer is learning to evaluate critically all those interpersonal relations which impede or help the attainment of group goals. More than ever before, the farmer appreciates the value of education as a prime requisite for the continuance of democratic processes.

The increasing use of discussion in agriculture has contributed to a change in rural attitudes and patterns of living. It has resulted in a greater emphasis on human as contrasted with material values, and has been a factor in decreasing rural-urban culture differentials and the gradual disappearance of some ethnic characteristics. As these changes within agriculture and rural life occur, they also affect our entire national life.

Finally, discussion has helped farm people attain both individual and group social, economic, and political goals. Farm people have grown in skills and understanding. They now participate actively on all levels in the planning of programs affecting the nation's welfare. The organizations which represent them have become increasingly articulate in affecting governmental policy.

What significance does the discussion movement in agriculture hold for teachers of speech? First, it is of importance to us as individual citizens in a democracy. Today, economic groupism is becoming the rule rather than the exception. Only rarely do we find a segment of our society which promotes the philosophy "What's good for the country is good for us." We have a responsibility to make this attitude prevail. The effective use of discussion can serve to promote the general welfare. Knowledge of discussion practice in one area may serve to stimulate its use in others.

Secondly, it is our responsibility to know the practical applications of our own specialty. Teachers of speech in such states as Ohio, Minnesota, Iowa, New York, North Dakota, Michigan, and Utah, will find source materials of great value in the discussion activities taking place within agriculture.

Thirdly, the history of discussion in agriculture reveals needs which can be met by teachers of speech. The emphasis on the training of leaders, the preparation of usable discussion materials, and the effective local practice of discussion, was no accident. Here was where help was needed. Members of the speech profession can render a service in meeting these continuing needs in agriculture.

Finally, it is our responsibility to contribute to the sound development of an adult education movement which has within it the elements of more effective international cooperation. Unless people can be trained in the skills needed to solve problems on local levels, they can never solve problems on an international level. Every teacher of discussion could promote discussion programs in which problems affecting the welfare of all can be analyzed and sound social action planned. The teaching of discussion should be taken outside university walls. Agriculture as well as other areas of our national life would welcome this leadership.

THE INVISIBLE PANEL

Strang Lawson

TOO frequently meetings organized for discussion become instead a theatre where a few chosen discussers occupy the stage before a largely passive audience. The elect discourse from an eminence, separated both by distance and by greater knowledge. The announcement is usually made that everybody will have a chance to ask questions and speak from the floor, but this honorable intention often succumbs to the ravages of time and weariness. When the experts have laid the foundation and put up the framework, it is time to go home.

Obviously, the various types of forum and panel have a function. In some situations priority should be given to exposition of fact and opinion by those who know best; in others, the hearers may prefer to have a panel reflect through informal interchange the typical audience points of view.

If the main purpose is to induce general participation, however, the "invisible panel" merits consideration. This was the method employed at the annual conference of the New York State English Council, held in Syracuse in May, 1950.

The Council is an association of English teachers of New York State from all levels of teaching. One of its objectives is "to promote discussion and study on a local, regional and state-wide basis, with the intention of increasing the understanding of the best practices in English teaching." In planning the conference program, therefore, we assumed that the teachers would come not only to hear the excellent speeches of Robert C. Pooley and Archibald MacLeish, but also to exchange information and opinions about common problems.

The conference divided into six groups to discuss for an hour Communication, Fourth-Year High School English, Literature in School and College, What Every High School Freshman Should Know, English and Personal Guidance, and Uses and Abuses of Radio, Television, and Movies.

These discussion groups had three related purposes: First, to bring together elementary, secondary, and college English teachers, instead of separating them; second, to elicit as wide participation as possible, in order to reveal diverse experiences, assumptions, and attitudes, and also to induce an active rather than a passive mood; third, to avoid any suggestion that a group of experts had all the answers.

Discussion chairmen and representative panels of from five to ten persons were appointed in advance. These chairmen and the "invisible" panel members were asked to abstain from written statements, but to come prepared to meet the following responsibilities:

Responsibilities of the Discussion Chairman

1. To state the problem clearly and point out its significance, or to obtain from the group such formulations; to break down the problem into its component parts; to suggest an order in which issues might be discussed; and, if it seems desirable, to obtain group agreement on limiting the discussion to cer-

Mr. Lawson is Chairman of the Department of English, Colgate University.

tain important aspects of the question.

2. To see that participation is general, and that all who wish to speak have opportunity to do so; keeping in mind that in selecting panels we have aimed at representation of various teaching-levels and geographical areas.

3. To ask for audibility, if necessary; and to repeat questions or comments, if necessary.

4. To stimulate and guide the discussion so that it gets somewhere, summarizing at appropriate points; to begin the discussion on time and adjourn on time.

5. To obtain, towards the end of the discussion, a formulation of conclusions reached, or of recommendations for further study; to summarize for the group (or have the recorder do this).

Responsibilities of the "invisible panel"

1. To be fairly well spaced throughout the audience, not seated together.

2. To think through the implications of the topic prior to the meeting and to be ready with pertinent comments, observations, and questions as a means of getting the general talk started.

3. To assist the Discussion Chairman in keeping the talk on the track—without, however, monopolizing the time.

4. To make specific proposals or suggestions whenever it seems appropriate to do so to bring a question to a head or to dispose of an issue.

5. To help formulate conclusions or recommendations at the end of the meeting.

Responsibilities of the Recorder

1. To make an outline of the discussion, with notes as detailed as possible, and if possible with the names of those participating.

2. To submit to the Discussion Chairman, as soon as possible after the meeting, a carefully edited report of the discussion; with a duplicate copy for the conference program chairman.

3. To obtain, if possible, the names and addresses of all attending the discussion.

On the basis of all reports, the conference may be judged remarkably successful. To this success the discussion groups undoubtedly contributed by giving the teachers the satisfaction of joining in the business of a working organization.

These tentative observations about the "invisible panel" may be hazarded:

1. Exceptionally skillful chairmanship is required. The chairman must point the way to discussion, but instead of dealing with the subject exhaustively should leave much unsaid at the beginning. He is less the leader of discussion than the surveyor of its course; but his clarifications, recapitulations, and interpretations call for genuine qualities of leadership.

2. Panel members should exercise similar self-denial. The good panel member speaks briefly and to the point. The panel should recede into the background as participation widens, and become vocal again only when questions or differences require clarification.

3. Two of our most popular topics attracted very large crowds. In such circumstances the "invisibility" convention is likely to be unsuitable: such a fiction cannot be maintained if speakers must walk to a microphone to be heard. In this type of discussion the general tone should be unrehearsed casualness. Unless acoustics are exceptionally good, or multiple microphones available, the maximum group size for an "invisible panel" is probably about one hundred.

SPEECH AND THE LEGAL PROFESSION

Otto E. Koegel

SPEECH training in college for prospective lawyers should be patterned to benefit especially the lawyer-to-be. Many lawyers are very bad speakers; and unfortunately a great many lawyers regard effective legal speakers with not too much esteem. In the last generation specialization in the law has been so intense that the able, lone practitioner of half a century ago would be utterly unequipped for the problems of today. Thus large offices have become necessary to provide specialists to keep pace with the multiplication of laws and regulations undreamed of by the lawyer of fifty years ago. Superficially, it may seem unimportant for an expert in some special branch of taxation or limited field of corporate finance to think much about public speaking as a personal need. Erudition is often thought to be sufficient. Sometimes the lawyer who believes he has become proficient in the art of persuasion is possessed of a turgidity damaging to his effectiveness.

Actually, the lawyer who cannot express himself effectively is at a great disadvantage, whether he goes to court or not. Any lawyer who never goes to court and never has been to court, suffers from the lack of the experience.

One of the greatest judges in our land today has said that one of the prime requisites of a good judge is to be able to sit for hours looking counsel squarely in the eye, apparently listening intently to every word, but actually oblivious to everything that is going on. In such circumstances, however good the legal speaker imagines himself to be, he is certainly ineffective. In this respect the lawyer-speaker suffers a disability not unknown to other speakers. Unless he can understand and feel his audience, whether he addresses a judge, a jury, or a town meeting, he is not effective.

Much of the speaking a lawyer is called upon to do is addressed to a superior and highly critical audience. The judge, often learned and sophisticated, is especially critical, whether the lawyer or even the judge recognizes the fact. The judge may have reached such a state of judicial excellence that his physical eye may be focused with kind approbation on the gentleman at the bar in his forensic efforts, but his mind's eye may be out the window. Emerson once said of a speaker whom he obviously did not like that in exact proportion as he talked he subtracted from the sum total of human learning. That is to say, he poured such an obfuscation into what was already known that the reservoir of existing knowledge was made less clear.

This brings us to the thesis that some understanding of epistomology, or the theory of thought and knowledge, although important to every speaker, is especially valuable for the lawyer. Each legal problem involves the application of principles to facts. Each case presents actually or potentially an adversary and a tribunal where a solution of the legal problem must be tested. The lawyer does not write or speak in precise or

Mr. Koegel is a member of the New York law firm of Dwight, Royall, Harris, Koegel & Caskey, and was a member of a predecessor firm, Hughes, Schurman & Dwight, of which the late Chief Justice was at one time the head. Mr. Koegel is also Chief Counsel of Twentieth Century-Fox Film Corporation. *This paper was presented at the annual convention of the Speech Association of America in New York on December 30, 1950.*

exact terms if he does not first learn to think in such terms. As one of our great jurists has observed, a good slogan, even if it is utterly inane, can defy analysis for fifty years. No utterance is more ineffective to the lawyer's critical audience than one sprinkled with clichés, slogans, and abstractions.

Just as the thinking process is limited by the thought categories of time, space, number, and motion, thoughts require words to express those interrelations. The lawyer should have a vocabulary sufficient to his needs, a vocabulary courage suited to the situation, and as great accomplishments in the art of persuasion as his ability admits.

Most legal speeches are overly long; some are dreadfully long. A banquet speaker once apologized for speaking overtime, explaining that he had left his watch at home. Will Rogers, the toastmaster, suggested that if the speaker had only turned around he could have seen a calendar on the wall.

Justice Holmes once commented pithily that a word is but the skin of a living thought. A poet-philosopher has referred to "unpicturable notions of the understanding," but this statement contains considerable euphemism. As a general rule, when a man says he understands a proposition but cannot explain it we are justified in concluding he does not understand it.

The importance of an adequate vocabulary has been mentioned. Although the suggestion may seem naive, reading of the dictionary has served to expand the vocabularies of many great men. The late Chief Justice Hughes said he had regularly read the dictionary during a great part of his life.

Our law schools today are devoted to the task of developing in the student a quality the lawyer likes to think of as "the legal mind." So much must be done in the law school that little or no time is allowed for forensics; and the unfortunate fact is that the subject is not too highly regarded. It is desirable, therefore, that as part of his preparation for the study of the law, the student should have studied public speaking.

As to the program for the lawyer-to-be, I should say, *first,* learn to think, to write, and to utter with precision as if every sentence would have to meet the acid test of critical reception. *Second,* develop respect for rhetoric and oratory, which have fallen into some disrepute.

Lord Birkenhead, one of the foremost lawyer-statesmen of the century, has said that the Sermon on the Mount is one of the two finest pieces of rhetoric in our language. Rhetoric and oratory are arts that can be good or bad; and as in any art, only the good is worth cultivating. The prospective lawyer could, with much profit, devote time to the study of the great masterpieces of English rhetoric, such as Webster's reply to Hayne in the United States Senate.

For lawyers as well as others speech is a craft subject. The student learns by doing. Part of the training for the young lawyer should be visits to courts where especially good arguments are to be made; for there is the arena where many lawyers will later utilize and develop the art of speaking. Perhaps the recordings of some effective legal speeches could be made for observation and study. Also, perhaps, recordings of students' efforts could be exchanged with those made in other schools for critical analysis and mutual assistance.

By taking well-designed formal courses of study and practice in public speaking the law student is enabled to accomplish the most in the shortest time. Left to his own devices, he may or may not one day become an effective speaker, but the chances are that he will not.

MEDIEVALISM AND THE MacARTHURIAN LEGEND

Philip Wylie

ON April 19th, 1951, General Douglas MacArthur stood before the Congress of the United States of America to make a speech which perhaps enjoyed greater advance prestige than any previous human utterance. The General was regarded by millions as America's foremost hero; his eloquence was renowned; his military genius was thought by multitudes to have won the Pacific War; as a statesman he was deemed to have performed in Japan almost overnight the perfect revolution —bloodless, ennobling, and irreversible; as a man, he was handsome and charming, magnetic, persuasive, domineering (but only as a good leader must be) and above all *colorful* in a way that took the breath and stung the eyes of legions of his fellow citizens.

The civilized world was electronically connected with the rostrum from which the General spoke. He had been the Light of the West in Asia—and he had just been recalled from that service to his country by a President whom millions regarded as so inferior that the very reason for the recall—repeated insubordination—merely added further outrage to their fury. It was confidently predicted that what MacArthur was about to say would take a place beside Washington's Farewell Address and Lincoln's short speech at Gettysburg. "School children," murmured one Senator, with tears in his eyes, "will commit to memory the words we are about to hear."

Then MacArthur spoke—and a week later no one could accurately recall a paragraph.

He began with a homily on the psychology of Oriental peoples wherein he soon commenced to contradict himself. He next recommended a defensive system in the Pacific similar to the one which had calamitously failed when he was in command of it. He followed with a report on Japan which, in view of naked fact, sounded like quotations from Pollyanna. He asked for an extension of our military frontiers in the Korean struggle and offered an unsupported opinion that such enlargements of the fronts would not precipitate war with Russia. He executed what has become a necessary gambit, these days, for every military leader: a staunch assertion of hatred for war. And he concluded with what should have been a most appealing reminder: that he had served his country for fifty-two years.

Amidst cheering and weeping, he sat down.

Unfortunately for him, the speech was immediately set in print, where men could study it without emotion. It then appeared that the one moving portion of his address, the part that referred to fifty-two years of service and tendered his adieus, was not "great" or even dignified; it was rather a composition of a sort less sonorous men call "corn"; and its thesis that he had done his duty and would "fade away," was

Mr. Wylie, editor and author, has written stories and articles for a number of periodicals, including Redbook, The Saturday Evening Post, *and* The American Magazine. *He is the author of a number of books, notably of* Generation of Vipers *(1942) and* An Essay on Morals *(1947).*

belied by his rush to a hundred-dollar-a-day suite in New York's most lavish hotel and a tour of America's cities comparable to a victorious Caesar's homecoming.

Nothing for schoolchildren to remember appeared in the speech. Not a single new principle or concept was added to those in current discussion. No vivid turn of phrase gave fresh content to the ancient ideals. Indeed, as oratory, the talk contained many sentences that would have been stricken from a high school theme. Here is an example: "Like a cobra any new enemy will more likely strike wherever it feels that the relativity in military or other potential is in its favor on a world-wide basis." Sententious, awkward, absurd in its simile, such talk may in truth be "purple" but that is all.

Millions expected MacArthur to show the way out of the "Korean mess." The same millions, by and large, feared and detested all fighting. They were left—when, finally, they stopped to think about it—with the gnawing worry that what the General had proposed might get them swiftly into conflict a thousand times worse. Americans who are obliged to make plans concerning the world (not just extravagant gestures toward Asians) found no new bearings behind the ringing timbre of authority. For our dilemma could not be world wide as MacArthur stated and at the same time depend wholly upon Asia, as he insisted. Even the Chinese, of whom he spoke with such assurance, could not be two kinds of people at once:

"There is little of the ideological concept either one way or another in the Chinese make-up," he said. But he had said, one paragraph before, of China, that it had become in fifty years, ". . . militarized in . . . concepts and ideals . . . a new and dominant power . . . allied with Soviet Russia but . . . in its own concepts and methods . . . aggressively imperialistic with a lust for expansion. . . ."

Now, either the Chinese are non-ideological and mainly interested in a better living standard, as MacArthur asserted, or they are imperialistic and communistic as he described them. They cannot be both.

What emerged, in sum, was an intellectual chaos, alarming in one so highly placed and in one with so relevant a background. MacArthur's views on Asia were not acceptable because they were incoherent.

A second sort of self-delusion is to be seen in his statements about the Japanese who, under his regime, have erected, "an edifice dedicated to the primacy of individual liberty and personal dignity. . . ." He went on to say that ". . . politically, economically and socially Japan is now abreast of many free nations of the earth and will not again fail the universal trust." Such talk has here been cited to the Pollyanna school; a better word for it is *hogwash*. At present, Japan depends upon American largesse for mere survival. Japan's economic future under any other aegis is inscrutable since it would turn upon recapturing the markets of China, currently communist. In the longer range of time, Japan's plight seems hopeless. For the Japanese birth rate is rapidly lowering the standard of living and setting up the same situation that keeps India a human shambles: too many mouths for the food supply.

How any honest intelligence could ignore such fundamental factors is impossible to imagine. But the General waved them aside.

He waved aside Europe. Subsequently, during his long interrogation, it appeared that he felt himself ill-equipped

to "think" about Europe. Hence, the effect of all he said on some two hundred millions of our most industrialized and best educated associates in the struggle against communism was one of absolute shock and utter horror. By ignoring them, the General had written them off: Asia must be salvaged but America can neglect England, France, Italy, the Benelux countries, Germany, the Near East, and so on. MacArthur talked like a man on a ship who felt that if he worked to keep his half afloat it did not matter if the other half foundered. He called the crisis "global" but the globe, to MacArthur, is limited to the area he knows.

Those are some of the conspicuous examples of his faulty logic and his disdain of fact. Many more could be noted. Concerning America's military security he asserted flatly, "Any predatory attack from Asia must be an amphibious effort." It is interesting to remember that, although Japan was approached by "amphibious efforts," the main islands fell without such onslaught. Even while MacArthur spoke, vast American agencies were being formed, funds were being levied, and the laws of all forty-eight states were being changed, to make ready for a "predatory" atomic attack upon the USA by air alone. Indeed, the most bizarre blank in the General's "thinking" (and in his address) was the absence of any consideration of the new-style, atomic attack that certainly will occur if war becomes global. What is at the very least a consummate hazard for America as a whole—not just as a military establishment—was ignored by MacArthur.

The fact is that—if he were a man of imagination and insight—rather than to exploit the confused causes of distant Asia he might well have chosen to discuss the failure of congressional leaders to prepare the American people for atomic bombardment.

The probable nature of any next war is, in this author's opinion, our most critical current problem; it could and should be visualized for all the people and for that majority of their representatives who are too ill-educated to understand. The next war may be won or lost, not with troops or navies or airplanes, but in the streets of cities and through the valor or the panic of opposed civilians under assault by weapons of mass destruction and terror. MacArthur, alas, seems incapable even of considering such a possibility. The name he has given it publicly is "hysteria." That term in its two principal senses of inappropriate reaction or absence of required reaction, seems to fit not those who are informed and anxious but the General himself. He must be unable to understand the august scientific problems involved since he ignores them—even conceives them to be emotional.

His speech gave one clue to the nature of his intellectual quandary. Thoughtful men see the world in the midst of a terrible conflict between men who want to be free and men who want to impose a "system." But, to MacArthur, "*The problem basically is theological. . . .*"

If that is so, we are probably doomed. For, in America, it is the constitutional right of each person to take whatever "theological" view he sees fit and none has the right to impose his dogma on the rest. Only the communists have an absolute and international "theology," with Marx as its God-head, Lenin as its Savior, Stalin as its High Priest, the Manifesto as its creed, and a power to impose identical belief by physical means transcending even the frenzy of that "Christian" anomaly, the Inquisition. Among men still largely free, or

hoping again to to be free, this is not the time for "theological" propaganda. Such a use of the word by a potential American leader will shock all who understand what liberty has meant here for two centuries. If we cannot agree that we are endeavoring to establish a free world and imagine, instead, we are seeking a "theology," the communists, who have a perfected brand, will surely undo us for not knowing what we are trying to do! The obeisance MacArthur later paid the Catholic Church in the person of Cardinal Spellman sharply emphasized the General's sense of "theology" as distinguished from freedom.

Of such notions spoke MacArthur, sabotaging the best opportunity for a speech ever offered in history. His words startled many of the people who until then had almost revered him. They touched off a nation-wide squabble about policy which soon faded away. The speech in Washington was followed by equally confused and confusing harangues on domestic matters—words of a man who had been away from home for half a generation. Yet crowds still yelled for him and one Representative, after the address, insisted he had just listened to "a large hunk of God."

The question raised by the speech is thus not limited to the speech itself. The only praise an honest man can give the address is that it was well-delivered. The important aspect is the impact of MacArthur himself upon so many of his fellow-citizens. Even after cold type had revealed the faults and flaws and grievous gulfs in the old soldier's thought processes, many millions of plain people still believed him the next thing to God, and many leading politicians behaved as if they agreed—because at the moment, it seemed expedient. Perhaps only the President, who had dealt so long with the General and who was regarded by so many as his measureless inferior, knew enough to anticipate what would happen. He could have silenced MacArthur with a sentence; instead, he let him talk. He is supposed to have said, rather wryly, that by talking, the General would soon disillusion all but his blindest followers. And, of course, MacArthur has done just that: where now is his boom for President?

Two factors, in the opinion of this writer, are responsible for the fast-tarnishing "MacArthur legend."

In the first place, the legend was handmade by the General himself. Throughout the war his lurid statements warmed the hearts of the simple-minded majority even when they threw no light whatever on the military situation. But his censorship was sometimes as strict as the late Doctor Goebbels'. The officers around him, including his press officers, were selected for "personal loyalty"—a total adulation achieved at the expense of detachment and by the extirpation of the critical function. It was "loyalty" such as Hitler once demanded and Stalin requires today. Among men who regard "equality" as an ideal—even among many military men—such an attitude seemed pompous, ego-maniacal, the very essence of what is "un-American." Nevertheless the requirement of total adulation served to insure that whatever got through to the American public about MacArthur from his headquarters enlarged his personal grandeur. Contrary opinion and contrary fact were discouraged, brushed aside, denied, and ignored. Their purveyors were punished if possible. Correspondents with the "Dugout Doug'" slant, those who wondered aloud about the General's private fortune, those who resisted policies-in-contradiction-to-reality, were sometimes sent back to the USA. A legend was ruthlessly nourished. Only

when the General himself came home to save the country was it sadly, almost samefully, apparent that the press-agentry had created mere myth.

Historians alone can judge MacArthur's competence—and his failings—as a military man. But one quality he had: color. In an age of Trumans and Tafts, a post-Roosevelt age, color is the aspect least visible in national leadership. Beside MacArthur all the other generals, including even Eisenhower, pale. And color, above other qualities, is what the American people "buy," whether in packaged goods, motor cars, or leaders. The hat, the bravura of "*I* shall return," the carefully screened aspect of jauntiness, the orotund defiance, the profile, the voice—those qualities were vivid precisely when and where other men were merely efficient and effective, brave without a halo of self-congratulation. MacArthur often seemed great when he was merely grandiose—or gaudy.

In our dark years, moreover, he shone not only through contrast but because we so desperately and truly needed greatness in our leadership. During all such Toynbeean times of trouble the mob invariably invents what it needs but lacks; MacArthur knew the need and abetted the invention but he did not and cannot fill the lack.

The fable of the king whose tailor cut for him a suit of thin air in which His Highness paraded for the admiration of all his subjects save one honest-eyed boy, is not just a fable; it states a basic principle of mass psychology. Lincoln said it another way; and for a while, MacArthur fooled nearly all the people. Illusion and delusion are universal properties of the senses and of so-called reason (as the psychologists at Princeton and Dartmouth have just expensively and rather redundantly proved). MacArthur staged illusions for a vast body of people who, lacking the real thing, were emotionally in a state to accept the ersatz. In the last analysis, that condition of the public, not the intellectual immaturity of the General, is the real hazard.

Our nation is presumably founded upon a principle which makes one special and peculiar leader unnecessary. Leading ourselves is a right and a duty we refuse jealously to transfer to any individual. However, during the past decades, we have unwittingly abdicated many of our rights and duties, under freedom. The long tenure of Roosevelt, whether in itself good or bad, was psychologically evil from this standpoint: half a generation grew up under political stasis. We have abandoned the core of freedom—freedom of knowledge—owing to duress; today, neither the public nor its elected representatives are privy to the mere knowledge which shapes national policy, consumes our resources, uses up our tax monies, and so on. The secrecy of the atom bomb has become an ubiquitous secrecy; the first concern of our government is military and unknowable. In a philosophical sense we are a partial military dictatorship, however temporary; in a literal sense we are all currently disenfranchised.

We have abrogated rights and values in other categories. The ultimate result of the Depression in the Thirties has been a substitution of the chimera of "security" for the old value of independence. This exchange—in an age of upheaval—is psychologically shaky because it is properly felt to be both unworthy and inadequate. And two thirds of us live, in conscious or unconscious uneasiness, under the menace of the sudden and hideous effects of atomic bombardment. Such circumstances,

along with others too many and varied to mention here, have inclined the American people, in my opinion, much farther away from our valid principles than we realize and have, inevitably, made us prey to the sentiments of any near-panicky mob, to the yielding up of personal responsibility, and to the yearning for a leader, a responsibility-taker, a papa, a large hunk of God personified.

But all the "men on horseback" in history, once unhorsed, are seen to have been riding for no greater cause than the childish cravings of the masses and their fears, whether real or synthetic. We may then regard as a hopeful sign the fact that, when Americans saw the General close up, they decided they were not "going his way." For a free people cannot be dominated by any one man or by his theology; and no man who understands liberty can have such an ambition.

COMMENTARIES

THE POLITICAL ANIMAL

Now, that man is more of a political animal than bees or any other gregarious animals is evident. Nature, as we often say, makes nothing in vain, and man is the only animal whom she has endowed with the gift of speech. And whereas mere voice is but an indication of pleasure or pain, and is therefore found in other animals (for their nature attains to the perception of pleasure and pain and the intimation of them to one another, and no further), the power of speech is intended to set forth the expedient and inexpedient, and therefore likewise the just and the unjust. And it is a characteristic of man that he alone has any sense of good and evil, of just and unjust, and the like, and the association of living beings who have this sense makes a family and a state.—Aristotle, *Politica,* Book I.

THE KINDS OF BRAINS

. . . There are three different kinds of brains, the one understands things unassisted, the other understands things when shown by others, the third understands neither alone nor with the explanations of others. The first kind is most excellent, the second also excellent, but the third useless.—Niccolò Machiavelli, *The Prince,* Chapter XXII.

THE ROAD TO DESPOTISM

. . . It will be forgotten, on the one hand, that jealousy is the usual concomitant of love, and that the noble enthusiasm of liberty is apt to be infected with a spirit of narrow and illiberal distrust. On the other hand, it will be equally forgotten that the vigor of government is essential to the security of liberty; that, in the contemplation of a sound and well-informed judgment, their interest can never be separated; and that a dangerous ambition more often lurks behind the specious mask of zeal for the rights of the people than under the forbidding appearance of zeal for the firmness and efficiency of government. History will teach us that the former has been found a much more certain road to the introduction of despotism than the latter, and that of those men who have overturned the liberties of republics, the greatest number have begun their career by paying an obsequious court to the people; commencing demagogues, and ending tyrants.—Alexander Hamilton, *The Federalist,* No. I.

CLASSICS AND SPEECH

Otto A. Dieter

WHENEVER we consider the scope of the field of Speech, one fundamental question, among others, occurs to us: What relationships are there between Classics and Speech? Since what we generally refer to as *Speech* was to the Ancients what we more precisely designate as *Rhetoric*, we may also interchange the terms and ask: What has modern rhetoric to do with the Ancients? What good, if any, might our students of Public Address derive from a study of the Classics? Are there necessary or close relations between present-day theories of public speaking and the ancient Greek and Roman rhetorics?

The moment we formulate our inquiry in these terms, we may be reminded of a statement made by Wilhelm Kroll in his *Rhetoric*,[1] which is our best available epitome of modern research in ancient rhetoric. Discussing the theory of Corax and Tisias, this eminent representative of pre-Nazi German classical scholarship bids us bear in mind that normal human intelligence was exercised long before as well as ever since there was rhetoric, and that defendants in all ages presumably used the argument from the Probable in their defense without any advice from rhetoric. Furthermore, the thought may suggest itself, that if a *techné*, theory, or art comes into being, or is developed in the manner which Aristotle described (*Metaphysics*, 981b, *Ethics*, 1094a, and *Rhetoric*, 1354a), we may assume that speakers of normal intelligence and some experience must have been devising theories of rhetoric, or arts of effective speaking ever since the beginning of culture.

According to our records, the Sicilians seem to have been the first to publicize their theory and to offer to teach it to others for a fee. Whether or not they used the term *rhetoric*, what they professed to teach their fellow citizens was beyond any doubt how to present persuasively, i.e., either as highly probable or as highly improbable, the doubtful matters with which they had to concern themselves. And we have every reason to assume that they did not in their handbook advocate the use of the argument from the Probable until after they had learned from observation and experience that normally intelligent speakers had employed it effectively in forensic speeches to determine variables which could otherwise not be established. The writer of our earliest extant Greek rhetoric, the author of *Ad Alexandrum*, used neither the term *rhetoriké* nor *techné;* but he, too, purported to teach a method of effective speaking which he had derived from practice.

In the opinion of Aristotle, none of the earlier rhetorics fully satisfied the high requirements of an art. In his own work, he sought to attain this excellence: (1) by recognizing the relative nature

Mr. Dieter (Ph.D., Iowa, 1939) is Associate Professor of Speech at the University of Illinois. *This paper was written for the Sectional Meeting on* The Scope of the Field of Speech *at the convention, of the Speech Association of America in New York on Saturday, December 30, 1950. Because of the writer's illness, it was read by Mr. Jack Mills of the University of Illinois Graduate School.*

[1] Kroll, Wilhelm, *Rhetorik*, 1, in Pauly-Wissowa-Kroll R. E., Supplementband 7: "Doch sei schon hier daran erinnert, dasz es vor und neben der R. einen gesunden Menschenverstand gab, und dasz die Verteidigung durch EIKOTA dem bedrängten oft von selbst einfallen muszte."

and the limited potentiality of rhetoric, letting it be no more than the *dynamis* of seeing what could possibly be persuasive about any particular thing; (2) by emphasizing *pisteis*, i.e., the processes of proof, as the only artistic element in rhetoric; and (3) by attempting to teach rhetoric as, according to his own specification, every art must be taught, that is to say, not by enunciating principles merely, nor by showing that they are effective when applied, but primarily by explaining their causes, or the reasons why they are true. Aristotle's principles of rhetoric, too, were derived from observation and practice. And in presenting his explanations and rationalizations of its principles he never suggested that he was inaugurating a wholly new intellectual activity (183b25 ff.), but rather that he was endeavoring to do better what others before him had done less well.[2] This normal activity of human beings was not interrupted during the centuries in which Aristotle's manuscript lay mouldering in the vault nor did it cease during the ages in which Aristotle was comparatively little known. In the tenth century, for instance, the lowly monk of St. Gallen, Notker Labeo, bade his pupils go to Cicero for further rhetorical instruction, but to bear in mind also that human ingenuity almost daily devises new methods of persuasiveness.[3]

It would appear possible, then, to conclude that there is no necessary connection, or close relationship, between what we call rhetoric and the Classics. Not all human beings paint, but most, presumably, speak and argue. The more one listens to debates, or engages in argumentative speaking, the more natural it seems to deduce principles of effective speaking, and the stronger the impulse to offer to teach them to others —with great faith in one's own explanations.

Having made this obvious point, have we said all that needs to be said on our question? Clearly, we have not. For it happens that we as Indo-Germanic peoples have inherited a linguistic and cultural legacy from Greece and Rome. Our languages are characteristically classical in grammar, syntax, and vocabulary; our intellectual and spiritual life has been moulded in classical forms. Of this our classical heritage, our logic and our rhetoric are integral parts. As many of us as have been educated have been taught that *classics* means "of highest rank" and that in literature and art mankind has never been able to excel what ancient Greeks and Romans have achieved. Thus we have been conditioned also to regard most highly the rhetoric which they have transmitted to us. This high regard for their rhetoric in particular has been consciously cultivated and developed in us by our teachers. Lane Cooper,[4] for one, begins his *Preface* with the words: "Aristotle's Rhetoric is one of the world's best and wisest books." Following the *Preface* comes the *Witnesses to the value of the Rhetoric:* before the eager student reads a line of Aristotle's Rhetoric he is exposed to three pages of superlative testimonies to its worth and merit. In this year of our Lord 1950 there are those among our teachers who, though they

[2] "This is in fact what has happened in regard to rhetorical speeches and to practically all the other arts: for those who discovered the beginnings of them advanced them in all only a little way, whereas the celebrities of to-day are the heirs (so to speak) of a long succession of men who have advanced them bit by bit, and so have developed them to their present form. . . ." 183b27 ff. "Moreover, on the subject of Rhetoric there exists much that has been said long ago. . . ." 184a10. *The Works of Aristotle,* I, W. D. Ross, Oxford, 1928.

[3] "Ad hoc humanum ingenium nouas sibi cottidie parit rationes suadendi et dissuadendi." Piper, Paul, *Die Schriften Notkers und Seiner Schule,* Freiburg I. B. und Tübingen, 1882, Vol. 1, p. 662.

[4] Cooper, Lane, *The Rhetoric of Aristotle,* D. Appleton-Century Company, New York-London, 1932, p. vii and xi.

loudly protest against believing in the finality of the Christian religion, staunchly declare and vigorously defend the finality of Classical rhetoric to the greater glory of Aristotle. To their students the conclusion must seem inevitable: rhetoric and Aristotle, public address and the Ancients, public speaking and the Classics are closely and inseparably related one with the other. As the theologian must know the theological languages, Hebrew and Greek, so the rhetorician ought to know the rhetorical, Greek and Latin. Rhetoric begins and ends with the Classics.

As teachers of rhetoric and directors of rhetorical research, which of these contrary persuasions ought we to hold? Which of these principles should guide us? Let me suggest that in the best interests of our discipline we ought to be agnostic of both. If we identify ourselves closely with either, we will stunt the growth of our subject; to proceed on the assumption that both may be either false, or only partly true, will assure us a healthier development.

I for one have not been able to satisfy myself that critical scholarship has completed its work on the extant texts. For us to "authorize" any modern language translation of an ancient rhetorical text at this time, appears to me to be dangerous. I sometimes wonder just how "classical" the so-called classical rhetorical theory might be which is promulgated in some of our textbooks. Frankly, I have my doubts about the finality of Classical rhetoric. I seem to see little reason to believe that Aristotle's Rhetoric is any more final than was, for example, his Physics. The sergeant at St. Lo, who, reflecting on his observation and experience, identified the pertinent principle and equipped his tank with a "hedge-cutter," was recognized and decorated by the Commanding General as having contributed significantly to the art of warfare. Have not Aphthonius, Bacon, Priestley, Winans, and Kenneth Burke, for example, and others since the Ancients made significant contributions to rhetoric? When I consider how little Classical rhetoric seems to have assisted in the solution of the great problems of the past, or when I recall how ineffective modern rhetoric appeared to be at Lake Success in 1950, and when I anticipate how vastly more complex and difficult to solve may be the rhetorical problems of the future, I fervently hope that some general or some sergeant among us might soon discover—if not a new rhetorical principle, at least some more effective methods, or techniques, of breaking through the hedges that impede our progress. As directors of research we are under no obligations to hold tenaciously to traditional patterns; we ought to dare to encourage even an adventurous pursuit if it holds any promise of beneficial results.

On the other hand, the best interests of our subject seem to demand also that we recognize fully and realistically how very heavily, indeed, we are indebted to the past. In order to do this, I find it helpful to think in terms of the time-tried analogy of the river. As the Mississippi might be said to have originated at that precise moment in the past when the first trickle of water began to flow away from Lake Itasca, so the stream of our traditional rhetoric might be said to have taken its beginning in Sicily. As the slender Mississippi was nourished and increased by waters from other lakes and tributary streams, so the rivulet from Sicily was deepened, widened, enlarged and made more powerful from the springs of Athens and the aqueducts of Rome. A river's source is vital to it throughout its course. Though seepage took its continuous toll, though its vol-

ume was diminished by evaporation, though pollutions at St. Paul and the muddy Missouri at St. Louis contaminated its purity—at Memphis, or at Vicksburg, or at whatever other point we may be stationed, the waters of our mighty river are always found to be at least in part Itascan. To an even greater degree, the stream of rhetoric flowing through the centuries, in spite of arid lands and times of drought and strong contaminations at various turns, has always remained in character and constitution Classical. It is not merely a probable statement, it is a verifiable fact that in all its reaches our stream of rhetoric has retained some vital contact with its sources and hence also contained within itself some currents, drifts, or sediments from Greece and Rome. Even Delsarte spoke of Elocution; Woolbert in his way developed Action. Perhaps it was this continuous contact with the past, the meagre trickles from the fountain-heads, that always kept the river from stagnation. Perhaps it is true that much of what is good in modern rhetoric is Classical; perhaps the more effective rhetoric of the future, too, will show the gold and silvery sheen of what is ancient.

What, then, should be our attitude to the Classics? What are some of the things we modern rhetoricians ought to do with reference to ancient rhetoric? For the graduate level, I would suggest the following:

(1) That we seek to understand ancient rhetoric in its relation to ancient culture generally.

(2) That we recognize the inadequacy of the mere reading of modern translations as a method for our students to acquire a sufficient understanding of the ancient theories of rhetoric.

(3) That we satisfy the need for systematic presentations of the ancient systems in lectures and allow ample time in our courses for group discussions.

(4) That we require our students to learn the Greek alphabet and to pronounce correctly Greek and Latin rhetorical terms.

(5) That we afford them opportunity to become proficient in the use of Greek and Latin dictionaries and the standard commentaries.

(6) That we encourage our students to read the old interpreters, e.g., Spengel, Cope, Jebb, Sandys, Blass, Volkmann, Chaignet, Navarre, and not to neglect the modern findings, e.g., of Louis Laurand, Jean Cousins, Werner Jaeger, Wilhelm Kroll, Friedrich Solmsen, Radermacher of Vienna, Harry Caplan, Bonner of Liverpool, Johannes Stroux of Berlin, Paul Oskar Kristeller, Kenneth Burke, and others.

(7) That we encourage qualified graduate students to take Greek or Latin as one of their required languages; if possible, to minor in Classical studies, and to do their research in close collaboration with the Department of Classics.

The Classics represent the usable past of rhetoric; our future will be the richer if we possess our heritage intelligently, for then we shall be more able to discern the values of modern tendencies in the field of Speech.

COMMENTARIES

USING THE CLASSICS

. . . We can say, Cicero says thus; these were the manners of Plato; these are the very words of Aristotle; but what do we say ourselves? What do we judge? A parrot would say as much as that.—Michel Eyquem de Montaigne, *Essays*, Book I, Chapter XXIV, "Of Pedantry."

MISARTICULATION AND DISCRIMINATION OF SPEECH SOUNDS

Duane C. Spriestersbach and James F. Curtis

TWO assumptions frequently noted in texts dealing with the retraining of individuals having articulatory defects are:

1) That an individual found to have a defective sound consistently misarticulates the sound in all phonetic contexts and in all kinds of speaking situations.

2) That treatment should invariably follow the pattern of ear training, then production of the sound in isolation, in nonsense syllables, in words and sentences, and finally in a series of increasingly difficult speaking situations.

An increasing amount of data makes the validity of these assumptions questionable.

I

Prior to 1945 several studies had shown that a specific individual was often inconsistent in misarticulating a given sound. For example, in their study of the articulation of children between the ages of two and six years, Wellman, Case, Mengert, and Bradbury found that with an increase in age, there was an apparent increase in the normal production of the consonants, accompanied by an increase in inconsistent misarticulation.[1] Roe and Milisen[2] and Sayler,[3] in their studies of nearly 4,000 school children in grades one to twelve, noted that certain blends were produced correctly more often than were the individual elements making up the blends. In a study of 100 first grade children, Amidon found that on the average only 36.5% of the articulation errors observed in the responses of a given child occurred in all three positions in the words tested.[4]

These and other studies appear to have established clearly that inconsistencies in speech sound production can hardly be attributed to chance. We must assume, therefore, that certain variables are operating in a systematic, lawful fashion.

Accordingly, Nelson,[5] Hale,[6] and Buck,[7] attempting to identify some of the possible variables, made detailed studies of the extent of inconsistent production of given sounds. The essential procedure was the same for all three studies. A group of children who had

Mr. Spriestersbach (Ph.D., Iowa, 1948) is Associate Professor of Speech Pathology and Audiology, State University of Iowa. Mr. Curtis (Ph.D., Iowa, 1942) is Professor of Speech, State University of Iowa. *This article is based on a paper presented at the 1949 Convention of the American Speech and Hearing Association, Chicago.*

[1] B. Wellman, I. Case, I. Mengert, and D. Bradbury, "Speech Sounds of Young Children," *University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare*, V, 2 (Iowa City, 1931).

[2] Vivian Roe and Robert Milisen, "The Effect of Maturation upon Defective Articulation in Elementary Grades," *Journal of Speech Disorders*, VII (March 1942), 37-50.

[3] H. K. Sayler, "The Effect of Maturation upon Defective Articulation in Grades Seven Through Twelve," *Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders*, XIV (September 1949), 202-207.

[4] Hilda F. Amidon, "A Statistical Study of Relationships Among Articulation Errors Made by One Hundred First Grade Children," M.A. Thesis, State University of Iowa, 1941.

[5] John T. Nelson, "A Study of Misarticulation of [s] in Combination with Selected Vowels and Consonants," M.A. Thesis, State University of Iowa, 1945.

[6] Anita R. Hale, "A Study of the Misarticulation of [s] in Children from Kindergarten Through Third Grade," M.A. Thesis, State University of Iowa, 1948.

[7] McKenzie W. Buck, "A Study of the Misarticulation of [r] in Children from Kindergarten Through Third Grade," M.A. Thesis, State University of Iowa, 1948.

been rated as having a functional articulatory defect involving the particular sound the investigator desired to study was selected. By means of a picture articulation test, each child was tested in detail on the production of the sound in all positions both as a single (i.e., in a phonetic context where the sound is not immediately adjacent to another consonant) and as one of the elements of a blend (i.e., in a phonetic context where the sound is adjacent to one or more other consonants). Nelson tested 133 children in grades one through six diagnosed as being defective in the articulation of [s], Hale tested 90 children from kindergarten through third grade diagnosed as being defective in the articulation of [s], and Buck tested 91 children from the kindergarten through third grade diagnosed as being defective in the articulation of [r]. Table I summarizes the comparable data from the three studies and gives rise to the following observations:

1) For all studies, the blends appear more amenable than singles to normal articulation. For example in Nelson's study 38.3% of the subjects produced the [s] sound correctly at least once in a blend and never in a single, but only 2.3% of the subjects produced the sound correctly at least once in a single and never in a blend. Strikingly similar results were obtained in the other two studies.

2) In each of the studies more than half the subjects correctly produced the sound in at least one of the phonetic contexts presented. In fact, Buck found that 95.5% of his subjects produced a correct [r] in at least one of the phonetic contexts.

Nelson's subjects were the most consistent in their misarticulations; 46.6% of his subjects did not produce the [s] in any phonetic context. Nelson found, moreover, that in his older age groups a relatively greater percentage of subjects were consistent in misarticulation than in his youngest age group. The conclusion might therefore be justified that the older children had tended to become so strongly conditioned to the faulty sound production that the normal maturation processes were no longer operating to increase the frequency of correct productions of the sound; the children were no longer in a period of transition. Some evidence tending to

TABLE I

CONSISTENCY DATA FROM THE STUDIES OF NELSON, HALE AND BUCK

	Percentage of Subjects		
	Nelson [s] N-133	Hale [s] N-90	Buck [r] N-91
1. Sound normal at least twice in blends and never in singles	34.6	20.0	37.4
2. Sound normal once in blends and never in singles	3.7	3.3	7.6
3. Sound normal at least once in blends and once only in singles	5.3	7.7	6.6
4. Sound normal at least once in singles but never in blends	2.3	3.3	1.1
5. Sound normal in neither blends nor singles	46.6	26.7	5.5
6. Sound normal more than once in both blends and singles	7.5	38.8	41.8
A. Inconsistent as between blends and singles (Cat. 1, 2, & 4)	40.6	26.6	46.1
B. Inconsistent, not as between blends and singles (Cat. 3 & 6)	12.8	46.6	48.4
C. Consistent in misarticulating sound (Cat. 5)	46.6	26.7	5.5
D. Inconsistent, general category (Cat. 1, 2, 3, 4, 6)	53.4	73.3	94.5

confirm this notion may be obtained from the study of Roe and Milisen and, more recently, from Sayler. These latter studies seem to indicate that little significant change appears in the mean number of errors made per child in grades 5 through 12.

Differences in age level, however, cannot explain the difference in consistency of misarticulation between the subjects of Hale and Buck. Therefore, a genuine difference may exist in the consistency with which the [r] and [s] sounds are correctly articulated, at least for young children from kindergarten through the third grade.

II

On the basis of the data so far presented, two points of view about consistency of articulation are possible. One is that the subjects tested were consistent in their production of speech sounds and that variation observed in these studies is attributable to chance. The other is that the subjects' production of a given sound is indeed inconsistent, the inconsistencies being determined in a lawful and regular way by certain variables as yet undefined.

Table II demonstrates that the correct production of the sound can hardly be attributed to chance in a sizeable group of cases. Even if we accepted an extreme point of view that any subjects who articulated the sound correctly 75% or more of the time misarticulated the remaining 25% of the time only by chance, and that the subjects who correctly articulated the sound 25% of the time or less did so only by chance, we would still have to account for at least one-third of the subjects.

It seems apparent, therefore, that the first of the two positions enumerated above is more congruent with the observed facts, and that some systematic factor or factors must be postulated to account for the apparent inconsistencies in articulatory behavior. For example, some evidence in the data presented by Hale and Buck indicates that the tongue position required for certain adjacent consonants in [s] and [r] blends may facilitate the correct production of [s] and [r].

TABLE II

THE RANGE IN THE NUMBER OF CORRECT ARTICULATIONS OBSERVED IN THE SUBJECTS STUDIED BY BUCK AND HALE

Number of Correct Responses	Number of Children	
	Buck	Hale
0	5	24
1-5	24	16
6-10	11	6
11-15	10	7
16-20	7	10
21-25	9	6
26-30	1	4
31-35	4	6
36-40	7	4
41-45	7	3
46-50	1	3
51-55	5	1
Total	91	90

Total number of responses obtained from each subject: Buck, 71; Hale, 59.

Another possible variable is the ability of the subjects to discriminate between the error sound and the correct sound. Hale noted that a relationship appeared to exist between the frequency of correct [s] production and the apparent prominence or obscurity of the [s] sounds in particular blends and positions. When the [s] occurred as a single in the final position or when it occurred in combinations where it tended to be prolonged or otherwise auditorily prominent (e.g., pencil, books, pipes, hats), few omission errors occurred, and the frequency of errors in general was lower. The data presented in Table III would appear to supply further evidence concerning the importance of auditory discrimination. This table indicates that the relative frequency of the various types of errors made by Hale's subjects who produced a satisfactory [s] a rel-

atively large percentage of the time is quite different from that made by her subjects who did not produce [s] correctly at any time. Thus the children who articulated [s] correctly the greater proportion of the time seem to have been relatively more aware of the [s] sound as a phonetic entity and to have been attempting to approximate the normal production of the sound, but the group which did not produce a correct [s] at any time tended to omit the sound entirely or substitute another sound for it. This theory gains further support from the studies of Roe and Milisen and Sayler. Roe and Milisen, in studying the articulatory errors of children in the first six grades, found that substitutions were most common, distortions and omissions next, in that order. They noticed, however, that the relative frequency of substitutions tended to decrease, but that of distortions tended to increase with age. Sayler, in extending the study through the 7th to 12th grades, inclusive, found that the relative order of the types of errors had changed. Distortions were found to be the most common type of error in the older group, substitutions and omissions next. One should expect that with increasing age the child's cumulative experience would be likely to make him aware of the phonetic entities causing him difficulty. The hypothesis seems reasonable, then, that as a child tries more consistently to produce a given sound he has previously omitted, or replaced with a substitute sound, he will, at least during a learning period, approximate the correct production and so will make a relatively larger number of errors classifiable as distortions. At any rate the Roe and Milisen and Sayler studies show that the average number of articulatory errors exhibited a rather constant, though not statistically significant, decrease as age increased.

III

Although studies such as those of Hall[8] and Mase,[9] using carefully matched groups of normal and defective articulators, have amply demonstrated that individuals with defective articulation have no generalized inability to discriminate speech sounds, the assumption is nevertheless logical that certain individuals who misarticulate a given sound may not have developed fully effective awareness of that particular phonetic entity. Accordingly, Patricia Anderson designed a study to investigate the ability of the subject to discriminate between normal sounds and his own type of sound errors in the particular contexts in which his errors occur.[10]

[8] Margaret E. Hall, "Auditory Factors in Functional Articulatory Speech Defects," *Journal of Experimental Education*, VII (December 1938), 110-132.

[9] Darrel J. Mase, *Etiology of Articulatory Defects* (New York, 1946).

[10] Patricia W. Anderson, "The Relationship of Normal and Defective Articulation of the Consonant [s] in Various Phonetic Contexts to Auditory Discrimination Between Normal and Defective [s] Production Among Children from Kindergarten Through Fourth Grade," M.A. Thesis, State University of Iowa, 1949.

TABLE III

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE TYPE OF ERRORS MADE BY HALE'S SUBJECTS WHEN MISARTICULATING [s] AND THE RELATIVE NUMBER OF MISARTICULATIONS OF [s] OBSERVED.

Subjects	Type of Error		
	Distortions	Omissions	Substitutions
Group 1			
The 24 subjects who most frequently articulated [s] correctly (23-52 correct responses out of a possible 59)	278 (53.3%)	124 (23.8%)	120 (23.0%)
Group 2			
The 24 subjects who most consistently misarticulated [s] (no correct responses out of a possible 59)	216 (15.9%)	479 (35.2%)	662 (48.6%)

Anderson tested 31 children from kindergarten through fourth grade who had been judged to have functionally defective [s] articulation. A picture articulation test called for responses in which [s] occurred singly three times in each of the three word positions and in common blends 49 times; the test thus consisted of 58 responses. After the articulation test, the child was given a speech sound discrimination test employing the same set of words used in the articulation test. The child was seated with his back to the tester; thus any visual cues were eliminated. The tester pronounced a word three times, in one instance producing the [s] phoneme incorrectly, and the child was asked to signify which time the word was incorrectly said. The subject's own type of error was simulated as closely as possible by the examiner; in combinations where the subject produced the sound correctly, the most common type of [s] error was simulated.

Anderson assumed that if a relationship existed between the frequency of misarticulation of [s] and the frequency

TABLE IV

RELATION BETWEEN NUMBER OF ERRORS IN ARTICULATION OF THE CONSONANT [s] AND ERRORS IN DISCRIMINATING NORMAL AND DEFECTIVE [s] SOUNDS (from Anderson)

Subject	Number of [s] Errors	Total Number of Discrimination Errors	Number of Discrimination Errors in Combinations in which [s] Misarticulations Occur
1	34	17	12
2	15	11	2
3	17	12	5
4	34	24	15
5	23	2	2
6	34	2	2
7	10	5	4
8	18	25	14
9	31	7	5
10	57	8	5
11	42	14	13
12	20	10	5
13	10	3	1
14	23	7	7
15	37	8	6
16	19	24	24
17	17	0	0
18	25	6	4
19	52	11	5
20	48	6	4
21	17	4	2
22	30	3	1
23	27	25	18
24	19	3	2
25	47	7	7
26	15	5	4
27	41	8	7
28	22	11	4
29	47	18	17
30	39	12	11
31	29	17	11
Mean	29.6	10.1	7.1
S.D.	11.1	7.1	5.7

Pearson r (columns 2 vs. 3) = .25
Pearson r (columns 2 vs. 4) = .38

TABLE V

PERCENTAGE OF DISCRIMINATION ERRORS IN PHONETIC CONTEXTS IN WHICH [s] IS CORRECTLY PRODUCED COMPARED WITH PERCENTAGE OF DISCRIMINATION ERRORS IN PHONETIC CONTEXTS IN WHICH [s] IS MISARTICULATED (from Anderson)

Subject	[s] Correctly Produced	[s] Misarticulated	Difference in Percentage
1	11.0	16.6	5.6
2	13.0	4.5	—8.5
3	8.8	12.0	3.2
4	25.0	18.0	—7.0
5	1.1	2.0	.9
6	0.0	2.5	2.5
7	6.2	4.0	—2.2
8	14.0	35.0	21.0
9	4.4	7.1	2.7
10	10.7	5.6	—5.1
11	10.0	12.7	2.7
12	7.3	10.4	3.1
13	2.5	2.7	.2
14	0.0	9.2	9.2
15	5.8	7.3	1.5
16	16.0	20.9	4.9
17	0.0	0.0	0.0
18	7.5	3.9	—3.6
19	7.1	10.2	3.1
20	10.0	4.1	—5.9
21	2.8	4.3	1.5
22	5.2	1.2	—4.0
23	16.6	24.3	7.7
24	1.8	3.2	1.4
25	0.0	6.6	6.6
26	1.7	6.8	5.1
27	7.1	6.9	— .2
28	9.6	9.3	— .3
29	8.3	14.3	6.0
30	3.5	12.5	9.0
31	12.0	16.6	4.6
		Mean	2.2
		S.D.	5.6
		S.E.m	1.0
		t	2.1

of error in discriminating normal [s] sounds from [s] errors, it might be expected to appear in the data in two ways. First, those subjects showing the greater frequencies of misarticulation should tend to make the larger numbers of errors in discrimination. Second, those phonetic contexts in which [s] misarticulations were more frequently observed should yield the higher numbers of discrimination errors.

A review of the data given in Table IV will reveal that the subjects made discrimination errors about one-third as frequently as they made articulation errors. The difference between the mean number of discrimination errors (10.1) and the mean number of discrimination errors in combinations in which [s] misarticulations occurred (7.1) indicates that discrimination errors were found to occur in some phonetic contexts in which the subject did not misarticulate the [s] sound.

The data presented in Table V show a mean difference of 2.2% between the percentage of [s] discrimination errors in contexts in which the subjects misarticulated [s] and the percentage of [s] discrimination errors in the contexts in which they had no articulation difficulty, more errors being made in the

former instance. Since this difference is significant at the 5% level of confidence, a real difference probably exists in the ability of Anderson's subjects as a group to discriminate the [s] errors from correct [s] productions in these two situations. The obtained difference may be less than the real difference for several reasons:

1) In the discrimination test, the subject was required to select a response from three possible choices; thus he had one chance in three of guessing the correct answer.

2) Sound discrimination may be more important in accounting for the misarticulations of some subjects than for those of others.

3) The discriminations required of the subjects were relatively gross.

The relatively higher positive correlation of .66 between the number of omission type of [s] articulation errors and the number of discrimination errors in the contexts in which omissions were present, as compared to the correlation of .48 between the number of substitution type of articulation errors and the

TABLE VI

COMPARISON OF TYPES OF ARTICULATORY ERROR WITH RESPECT TO FREQUENCY OF DISCRIMINATION ERROR IN COMBINATIONS IN WHICH RESPECTIVE TYPES OF ARTICULATION ERROR WERE MADE BY EACH SUBJECT (from Anderson)

Subject	Number of Omission Errors in Articulation	Number of Discrimination Errors Where Sound Omitted	Number of Substitution Errors in Articulation	Number of Discrimination Errors Where Sound Substituted
1	25	9	0	0
2	8	1	5	1
3	10	3	7	2
4	23	7	11	7
5	4	1	19	1
6	15	2	19	0
7	33	4	14	1
8	11	8	7	6
9	16	3	15	2
10	19	0	14	3
11	34	12	8	3
12	0	0	18	5
13	5	1	5	0
14	0	0	25	7
15	8	1	28	5
16	21	17	27	9
17	5	0	12	0
18	0	0	25	3
19	0	0	35	5
20	0	0	48	4
21	0	0	17	2
22	0	0	0	0
23	0	0	28	18
24	0	0	19	2
25	33	7	14	2
26	2	1	13	3
27	3	1	37	7
28	14	3	7	1
29	23	8	24	9
30	20	6	19	5
31	0	0	29	11
Mean	15.8	4.5	18.8	4.3
S.D.	9.9	4.4	10.1	3.9
Pearson r*	.66		.48	

*Correlations included only subjects who produced the type of articulation error under consideration.

TABLE VII

COMPARISON OF PERCENTAGE OF ARTICULATION ERRORS AND PERCENTAGE OF DISCRIMINATION ERRORS FOR EACH SOUND COMBINATION (from Anderson).

Sound or Blend and Position	Percentage of Omission Errors in Articulation	Percentage of Discrimination Errors Where Sound Omitted	Percentage of Substitution Errors in Articulation	Percentage of Discrimination Errors Where Sound Substituted
initial	5.4	0.0	49.5	3.2
[s] medial	5.4	2.2	48.4	6.5
final	11.8	2.2	35.5	16.1
[sl] initial	2.2	0.0	32.2	2.2
[sm] initial	13.9	4.8	18.3	12.9
[sn] initial	8.6	3.2	18.3	2.2
[ks] final	12.9	5.4	25.8	5.4
[ns] medial	6.5	0.0	46.8	4.8
final	7.5	2.2	37.6	10.8
[ps] final	14.0	2.2	31.2	5.4
[ts] final	24.7	5.4	19.4	8.6
[skr] initial	14.0	11.3	30.6	6.5
[sp] initial	40.9	9.7	19.4	5.4
initial	19.4	5.4	12.9	2.2
[st] medial	29.0	8.1	30.6	1.6
final	27.4	6.5	16.1	0.0
[sw] initial	10.8	4.3	53.8	20.4
[spr] initial	30.6	8.1	29.0	8.1
[str] initial	30.1	6.5	18.3	8.6
[sk] initial	55.5	15.1	16.1	4.3
medial	22.6	8.1	29.0	9.7
final	17.7	4.8	50.0	8.1
Mean	17.8	5.3	30.4	7.0
S.D.	10.5	3.7	12.4	4.7
Pearson *r*	.75		.25	

number of discrimination errors in contexts where substitutions were found (see Table VI), suggests a relationship between the type of [s] articulation error the subject tends to produce and his ability to discriminate between good and poor production of [s].

Table VII compares the type of articulation error with respect to the frequency of discrimination error in combinations in which the respective types of error were made, and considers the group as a whole rather than analyzes the data on a subject-to-subject basis. The obtained correlation of .75 suggests a strong relationship between the omission type of articulation error in particular phonetic contexts and the frequency of sound discrimination error in the same phonetic contexts. The corresponding correlation of .25 for the substitution type of articulation error indicates that discrimination errors do not tend to be closely related to the contexts in which substitution errors are made.

IV

In summary the studies reviewed suggest the tentative and guarded generalizations that:

1) individuals who misarticulate the speech sounds typically do so inconsistently.

2) the inconsistencies are to be accounted for on a lawful basis.

3) need exists for a rather detailed testing of any defective sound in all phonetic contexts in which it normally occurs for the subject being tested.

4) from a clinical point of view, to look for phonetic contexts in which the individual consistently articulates the sound correctly is feasible and advisable. As Van Riper suggests, such correct productions may be "nuggets of gold" to be used in speeding the establishing of correct habit patterns.

5) during early stages of retraining the routine use for all subjects of words in which the sound occurs as a single is to be questioned. Rather, articulation of blends may facilitate generalized improvement.

6) ear training adapted to the particular phonetic contexts in which the individual's misarticulations occur is probably more effective than the gross type now commonly employed.

7) a longer period of ear training may be necessary for eradicating certain types of articulation errors than for others.

Obviously unless the subject is perfectly clear as to the phonetic element toward which his retraining is being directed, he cannot work effectively to overcome his errors; thus, some measure of ear training is necessary. On the other hand, these studies indicate that, with adequate phonetic awareness, the subject may well respond much more rapidly to a retraining program designed in terms of the sound-in-context. Under such a program, the results of careful, detailed testing, systematically exploited, may well provide cues to significant short-cuts in therapy.

COMMENTARIES

SHIBBOLETHS

Behold, O Lord God, yea, behold patiently as Thou art wont, how carefully the sons of men observe the covenanted rules of letters and syllables received from those who spake before them, . . . a teacher or learner of the hereditary laws of pronunciation will more offend men, by speaking without the aspirate, of a "uman being," in despite of the laws of grammar, than if he, a "human being," hate a "human being" in despite of Thine. . . . In quest of the fame of eloquence, a man standing before a human judge, surrounded by a human throng, declaiming against his enemy with fiercest hatred, will take heed most watchfully, lest, by an error of the tongue, he murder the word "human-being;" but takes no heed, lest, through the fury of his spirit, he murder the real human being.—Augustine, Bishop of Hippo, *Confessions*, Book I, [XVIII], 29.

INTEGRATION

. . . 'Tis not a soul, 'tis not a body that we are training up, but a man, and we ought not to divide him. And, as Plato says, we are not to fashion one without the other, but make them draw together like two horses harnessed to a coach. . . .—Michel Eyquem de Montaigne, *Essays*, Book I, Chapter XXV, "Of the Education of Children."

THE FORUM

REPORT FROM THE READERS

Last April, in an attempt to discover the interests and opinions of our readers, includings the members of the staff of *QJS*, we sent an inquiry blank to each member of the staff and to one hundred other persons chosen from those included in the *Directory of the Speech Association of America*. The blank listed the title of every article published in the issues of February and April, 1951, and asked that each reader responding to the inquiry place a plus mark (+) before the title of an article that he really liked, a check mark (√) before the title of an article that he thought especially useful, and a minus mark (—) before the title of an article that he would not have published. These three indications were not intended to represent points on a scale but to inform the editor.

The article which received the most minus marks shall be nameless here. Suffice it to say that only one article escaped unscathed: No one would have omitted Everett Hunt's "Ancient Rhetoric and Modern Propaganda" (April, pp. 157-160). Only one of the respondents would not have published Douglas G. Haring's "Cultural Contexts of Thought and Communication" (April, pp. 161-172). Wilbur S. Howell's "Oratory and Poetry in Fénelon's Literary Theory" (February, pp. 1-10) and Donald Lemen Clark's "Imitation: Theory and Practice in Roman Rhetoric" (February, pp. 11-22) were especially liked by the rhetoricians. The theatre people reserved their praise for Barnard Hewitt's "Uncle Tom and Uncle Sam: New Light from an Old Play" (February, pp. 63-70).

Comparing the replies of the staff members with those of the other readers revealed no significant differences, but one indication seems clear in both groups of replies: *QJS* does not have a unified audience. The rhetoricians tend to approve the articles in rheoric and public address; the dramatists to approve articles on the theatre; and the correctionists to wonder why *QJS* does not carry more articles on speech correction. Perhaps the situation could be worse: the rhetoricians, approving the articles in drama, might deplore the ones in rhetoric; or the dramatists, looking with favor on the materials in rhetoric, might disapprove those published in drama. When the readers of a journal fall into discrete groups, the lot of the editors is not enviable. Perhaps they should redouble their efforts to find now and again an article so comprehensive that it will touch a denominator common to those of diverse points of view.

We are sincerely concerned to know the interests and wishes of all the readers of *QJS*. We cannot send an inquiry blank to every reader, but we shall be indebted to those who will express an opinion about articles in this and preceding issues. Keeping in mind that materials primarily concerning the teaching of speech should be referred to the new journal now being established, all readers are invited to mention any articles in this or preceding issues for special favor or disfavor and especially to write an appraisal of any one or all of the departments. Letters may be addressed to *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, Columbia, Missouri.

B. A.

NEW BOOKS IN REVIEW

EARNEST BRANDENBURG, *Editor*

SPEECH SCIENCE

John W. Black

Speech Science is a recent label now on trial. Generally it refers to information picked up in laboratories and serving to describe speech, usually quantitatively. The scope and merit of the label will be determined pragmatically—if meanwhile it does not yield to a successor. In any event the present writer does not intend to imply a definition of the term, either through seeming to force upon some authors the name *speech scientist* or by excluding others who quite properly "belong."[1] This essay will suggest only a few titles that make up part of the kit of the researcher-teacher in experimental speech and hearing. The list includes both source materials and textbooks and occasionally a title that is both. The order will proceed from general books to those illustrating treatments of a single subject matter.

The worker in speech science does a large share of his workaday reading in books that stem from disciplines other than speech. For example, the most recent publication, *Language and Communication* by George A. Miller, is pointedly addressed to psychologists.[2] The scope and idea of the textbook more than its recency account for the space here accorded it. The first half (Chapters 1-5) of *Language and Communication* suggests an up-to-date outline for "Experimental Phonetics": production of voice, phonetics, and the sound wave; hearing, masking, noise, intelligibility, filtering, and distortion; word and sound counts. These topics are well understood among workers in speech. Except for the addition of recent evidence the treatment is also not unusual, and the overcondensing of material leaves much exposition for the teacher. For example, the male voice is described briefly as having an average fundamental frequency of 125 cps. Several studies in the *Archives of Speech*, particularly the Cowan supplement, would have contributed more exact information, or studies by Fairbanks and his students would have added particulars.[3] Again, the emissions through the vocal cords in voiced sounds are called *puffs*. The reader might then expect two theories of vowel production to be contrasted, but the contrast is not made. The student is left with the implication that the "puffed" vocal folds

Mr. Black (Ph.D., Iowa, 1935) is Professor of Speech and Director of Speech Science at Ohio State University.

[1] The topic of clinical speech is excluded from this review as a means of division of labor between writers. Descriptive phonetics is not treated; nor is semantics. A growing body of information about speech that comes from the methodology and emphasis of the social sciences is omitted. Researchers in these fields, among others, are certainly contributing to a science of speech. Unity alone accounts for restricting the present treatment largely to the laboratory.

[2] George A. Miller, *Language and Communication* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1951).

[3] See *Archives of Speech*, I (1933) 1; *Ibid., Supplement;* E. Thayer Curry, "The Pitch Characteristics of the Adolescent Male Voice," *Speech Monographs*, VII (1940).

send out an infinite number of harmonics. These instances could be multiplied and are cited only to indicate that *Language and Communication* is in many regards a scant treatment of some of the traditional material of speech science.

The significance of the first half of *Language and Communication*—the portion that is most over-simplified and sketchy—is the vitality of its treatment of "old contents." The inclusion of visible speech is not an example; any book in experimental speech published since visible displays of voice have been developed would obviously contain the new material. These smug pronouncements, however, apply only to part of the content of *the phonetic approach* and not at all to that of *the statistical approach*. In these treatments Miller is immensely satisfying, as he is in his discussion of "language engineering." The material is original and turns an otherwise structural or topic-by-topic treatment into a sharp delineation of the interactions in the speech process. Information theory is placed alongside sound level, harmonic structure, and other topics of experimental speech. The significance of the Weiner-Shannon information theory to the student of speech science is not yet clear.[4] A fair guess would be that "it's here to stay" and that it will permit new measurements of speech. Information theory seems to come closer to "language in action" or "speech on the fly" than experimental speech has yet done, and at the same time to encourage the researcher to continue his experimentation to obtain more measurements. For example, the concept of *redundancy* carries over to voice and thus gives a new significance to the identification of "extra meanings" that accompany the spoken message.[5]

The second half of *Language and Communication* may well give the worker in speech reason to wonder where his scope of scientific interest stops. Miller goes beyond the topics now common to workers in the speech laboratory, perhaps beyond the limits of a department of speech. Fortunately his point of view is not restricted by an arbitrary distinction between oral and written language. Both information theory and communication apply as well to the output of a teletype as to the phonemes of speech. However, Miller seems to concentrate on speech as much as possible and to fill in gaps with applicable discussions of written communication. If all the interest groups in speech that find topics related to their specialties in Chapters 6-12 were to extend the studies that Miller summarizes, the field of speech would abound in "speech scientists." The semanticist will be interested in all the chapters; the researcher in discussion will find the reports of studies of communication nets most valuable. Again, however, Miller may mar his textbook through omissions. For example, valuable as the work of Orvis Irwin and similar researchers is, identifying and counting sounds and words does not circumscribe the scientific study of the communication of childhood. Studies of other types treat voice and age, for example, with respect to fundamental frequency of the voice. And the formants of the child's recognizable vowels do not fit the pattern of the "average vowel" sufficiently well to justify avoiding genetic voice.

Again, the major contribution of *Language and Communication* to workers

[4] C. E. Shannon and Warren Weaver, *The Mathematical Theory of Communication* (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1949).

[5] Grant Fairbanks and Wilbert Pronovost, "An Experimental Study of the Pitch Characteristics of the Voice During the Expression of Emotions," *Speech Monographs*, VI (1939).

in speech science seems to this writer to lie in the attempt Miller has made to treat new topics, notably *information theory*, along with old ones and to synthesize experimental speech. The defects lie in overly generalized treatment of the old topics.[6]

Fletcher's *Speech and Hearing* has been a stand-by for the speech scientist for nearly a quarter of a century.[7] A revision is eagerly awaited. Much of the content of this book comes to speech science from a specialized group of physicists and engineers of the Bell Telephone Laboratories. The work here summarized and interpreted by Fletcher was pioneer endeavor throughout. It remains sufficiently definitive that researchers who re-explore or extend the studies are wise to relate the new findings to the accounts of *Speech and Hearing*. The book, impressive in its scope, is more limited than Miller's but still large. The treatment of the physical properties of speech and music waves is comprehensive. The earlier work of D. C. Miller stopped there.[8] Fletcher went further; he did not consider the speech wave a complete event until it was received. Disagreeing with some material in the current theories of hearing, he developed an explanation of the hearing process. In this reviewer's opinion Fletcher's next step was all-important. He and his co-workers quantified the amount of "information" conveyed by the sound waves to the listener. Recognition of the sound, syllable, word, or sentence was the criterion; for example, nonsense syllables of the CVC type were spoken by a number of talkers through a transmission system. Panels of listeners wrote what they heard. An "articulation" score was assigned to the system (speaker-line-listener). Filters were then introduced into the line and the crucial bands of frequencies for the correct identification of individual speech sounds were determined. In short, the articulation tests that Fletcher presented in *Speech and Hearing* could with slight modification have been immediately adapted to measure "speaker intelligibility." The tool has become somewhat common in researches that treat speech reception and the relative efficiency of a communication system, but it remains largely untried for measuring the efficiency of a speaker. Also, Fletcher paid as much respect to the language of speech as the available data warranted; he limited his chapter to the materials of Godfrey Dewey.[9] Fletcher made particular reference to contemporary developments in clinical speech (artificial larynx) and clinical audiometry (hearing tests and hearing aids.)

Limitations of *Speech and Hearing* center largely around statistical control in the experiments.

The two books described above require some orientation on the part of student readers. Among the elementary textbooks that contributed to this preparation from teachers of speech are *The Bases of Speech* by Gray and Wise, designed for a beginning course in general speech,[10] and *Voice Science* by Judson

[6] *Language and Communication* might be viewed as a post-war dividend of wartime research in communication. Miller worked with the Psycho-Acoustic Laboratory during World War II. Besides his many papers on communication in journals and this book, he was author or co-author of thirteen of the nineteen chapters of *Combat Information* II, the account of the wartime program of the Psycho-Acoustic Laboratory (*Summary Technical Report of Division* 17, NDRC, Volume 3. Washington, 1946). The student of speech is further indebted to Miller for writings in the recent *Handbook of Experimental Psychology*.

[7] Harvey Fletcher, *Speech and Hearing* (New York: Van Nostrand, 1929).

[8] Dayton C. Miller, *The Science of Musical Sounds* (New York: Macmillan, 1922).

[9] Godfrey Dewey, *Relative Frequency of English Sounds* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1923).

[10] Giles W. Gray and C. M. Wise, *The Bases of Speech*, rev. ed. (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1946).

and Weaver, written for an elementary study of speech science.[11] Both are useful in giving students the factual background necessary for laboratory experiences. The two books differ in purpose and accordingly in scope. Gray and Wise order speech generally under nine large divisions. The span of a unit is illustrated by the fact that *hearing* is a sub-topic under *physiological basis of speech*. The divisions are comprehensive, and the reader may turn frequently from this book to Miller (or *vice versa*) for corroborating evidence. Judson and Weaver, although purporting only to answer questions for the beginning "scientist" and to put him to work, make new kinds of observations for him, and also offer information that might well be generally available to beginning students of speech. *Voice Science* is rare in apprising the student that he hears himself (side-tone) by a dual transmission system, air and bone, and that of course a recording of his air-borne voice does not sound natural to him. Other authors—O'Neill and Eisenson, for example—have drawn from materials of speech science for course contents in general speech.[12]

In the eyes of the worker in the speech laboratory these four books, examples of texts that offer information about speech science, are commendable. If they share a weakness the blame may fall upon speech science, not the authors who seek factual contents for books about speech. The alleged fault is: a minimum of unifying idea from one topic of speech science to another and from these topics to the main purpose of the book. In these books the isolated arrays of facts in structured chapters that seem like water-tight compartments are more conspicuous in contrast with Miller's book. Its unity, as well as the apparent usefulness of the materials, stems largely from the continuing focus on communication. Possibly a science of speech has not yet evolved from a structural presentation in textbooks, classrooms, or experimental plans. Research workers in speech have developed few systematic programs that might lead to a "point of view." Psychology also was a static, structural science not so long ago. Possibly the factual textbooks closest to speech science have developed compartments and subdivisions a little too laboriously for the reader to find unity between the facts that are cited and the essence of the speech course. The hopeful signs that "useless" information may become essential information lie in the books that bring together isolated facts to explain an important aspect of speech. Fletcher gained unity and purpose for a "system" of speech and hearing through the articulation tests. The inadequacies of Miller's book are minor in the light of one of his great accomplishments: the blending of scientifically derived facts about speech with information theory.

Monographs such as the following lie between the report of an isolated experiment and the books that offer a systematic account of speech. G. Oscar Russell's *The Vowel* presents X-ray displays recently "copied" electronically for the artificial production of vowels.[13] Potter, Kopp, and Green have explained another visible display of the vowel as well as the consonant.[14] Martin Joos's *Acoustic Phonetics* supplements the preceding work.[15] Together they reveal many of the possibilities of *visible speech* as a tool in research and in teaching.

[11] Lyman S. Judson and Andrew T. Weaver, *Voice Science* (New York: Crofts, 1942).

[12] J. M. O'Neill, ed., *Foundations of Speech* (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1941); Jon Eisenson, *Basic Speech* (New York: Macmillan, 1950).

[13] G. Oscar Russell, *The Vowel* (Columbus: Ohio State University Press, 1928).

[14] R. K. Potter, G. A. Kopp, and H. C. Green, *Visible Speech* (New York: Van Nostrand, 1947).

[15] Martin Joos, "Acoustic Phonetics" Supplement to *Language*, XXIV (1948).

Speech science has a considerable content derived from inquiries into the psychology and physics of music. The late Dean Seashore encouraged parallel studies in the two areas.[16]

Work with speech production and transmission leads to speech reception or hearing. At this level the worker in speech accepts one of several theories of hearing offered by psychologists, engineers, or physiologists.[17] He knows from his own journals how man performs in noise.[18] He borrows his statistical techniques from applied statisticians and much of his equipment know-how from engineers.[19]

This summary of the writings pertinent to speech science may indicate that workers in speech have been unproductive in the accrual of experimental materials for their colleagues and students. Denial of the suggestion should not be too hasty. Lack of demand or urgency may have contributed to the dearth of materials. Most authors of textbooks in general speech have not been concerned with the findings of the laboratory. Administrators and teachers have raised no general cry, "Give us experimental content for our courses!" In the search for topics and approaches, neither the experimentalists in speech nor the authors who rely upon their findings have discovered a complete system that carries measurements of fundamental frequency and harmonic analysis toward an important end. Meanwhile facts are piling up and are becoming increasingly relevant to a systematic science of speech. Both Fletcher and Miller, one an engineer and the other a psychologist, demonstrate that scholarship in speech science can be vital.

[16] Carl E. Seashore, *Psychology of Music* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1938).

[17] S. S. Stevens and Hallowell Davis, *Hearing: Its Psychology and Physiology* (New York: John Wiley, 1938); E. G. Wever, *Theory of Hearing* (New York: John Wiley, 1949).

[18] Karl Kryter, "The Effects of Noise Upon Man," Supplement to *Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders*, 1950.

[19] Leo Beranek, *Acoustical Measurement* (New York: John Wiley, 1949).

MIDWESTERN PROGRESSIVE POLITICS: A HISTORICAL STUDY OF ITS ORIGINS AND DEVELOPMENT, 1870-1950. By Russel B. Nye. East Lansing: Michigan State College Press, 1951; pp. 422. $5.00.

In a brilliant summary of the movements which "raised more hell than corn in Kansas in the eighties and dumped milk in Iowa in the 1930's" Russel B. Nye traces the history of indigenous Midwestern radicalism from the Grangers through the Populists, the Silverites, the Bull-Moosers, the Progressives, and the various farm-labor combinations, to 1950, when "all that remained was the moral energy, diverted into new channels." "It was a fanaticism like the Crusades," said one contemporary in describing this agrarian revolt. "Reason slept; and the passions . . . ran amuck."

In *Midwestern Progressive Politics* one meets: vigorous personalities of rural protest such as Sockless Jerry Simpson, Sage Ignatius Donnelly, E. H. "Heifer-calf" Gillette, Mary "Yellin" Lease, William Jennings Bryan, and Old Bob LaFollette; urban reformers Samuel M. "Golden Rule" Jones, Jacob S. Coxey, Peter Witt, Tom L. Johnson, and John P. Altgeld; intellectuals Edward Bellamy, H. D. Lloyd, Richard T. Ely, Thorstein Veblen, and Washington Gladden; to say nothing of a host of fellow-traveling eccentrics and self-canonized crack-pots. On many of the pages, rhetorical scholars will find leads for new research in the persuasive techniques of protest movements.

Written largely from secondary sources, this volume is distinguished for its astute analysis rather than for its new information. Nye's carefully drawn distinctions between Eastern and Midwestern progressivism and his critical comparisons of Wilson's "New Freedom," Theodore Roosevelt's "New Nationalism," and LaFollette's "New Individualism" are particularly worthy of consideration. Nye, for example, quite convincingly relegates the "progressivism" of 1948 to a tradition alien to that of Dornelly, Dolliver, and LaFollette. An excellent list of sources and chapter references will be helpful to those doing research in the public address of this period, and several interesting illustrations capture LaFollette, Bryan, and Teddy Roosevelt in dynamic stumping postures.

ROBERT GRAY GUNDERSON,
Oberlin College

THE PUBLIC SPEAKING OF QUEEN ELIZABETH: SELECTIONS FROM HER OFFICIAL ADDRESSES. By George P. Rice, Jr. New York: Columbia University Press, 1951; pp. x+142. $2.50.

This small volume offers a convenient collection of twenty-one speeches and pronouncements prepared wholly or in part by Queen Elizabeth. Fifteen were delivered by the Queen and six were delivered by others in her name. The texts provided are those found in such standard sources as John Stow's *Annales*, Holinshed's *Chronicles*, D'Ewes' *Journals*, and others. Those speeches originally delivered in Latin are furnished here in translations, of which one has been prepared by Professor Rice. The texts are accurately reproduced with modernized punctuation and spelling; by an unfortunate slip the Queen's first address to the Commons on the subject of marriage is dated 1558 instead of 1559.

Three introductory essays, comprising roughly half the material of the book, provide historical, biographical, and rhetorical analyses of Elizabeth's time, her life, and her speech making. Students of public address, grateful for the services of collection and translation embodied in the work, will turn with quickened interest to these essays on "The People and Their Institutions," "The Woman and the Queen," and "The Speaker and the Speeches." If, however, such readers hope to find here some definitive estimate of the merit and power of queenly prose, they will be disappointed; the author does not reach beyond reporting and topical analysis.

By what standards are the speeches of autocratic princes to be judged? To what extent, if at all, did Elizabeth influence behavior and events through the power of her public utterances? When and why did the Queen succeed or fail in her rhetorical purposes? With such problems of rhetorical criticism the author does not grapple. He does, nonetheless, provide clear and interesting reporting on the public issues of Elizabeth's England, the Queen's conception of her royal prerogatives, and the details of her rhetorical practice.

CARROLL C. ARNOLD,
Cornell University

WILLIAM JOHNSON'S NATCHEZ: THE ANTE-BELLUM DIARY OF A FREE NEGRO. Edited by William Ransom Hogan and Edwin Adams Davis. Louisiana State University Press, 1951; pp. ix+812. $10.00.

In editing Johnson's valuable diary, which was acquired some years ago by Louisiana State University, Professors Hogan and Davis have made a unique and lasting contribution to historical knowledge. Although historians have given careful study to the subject of Negro slavery, the status of many free Negroes in Southern society has been only vaguely understood. As a source book this volume will be consulted many times by scholars who have identified themselves with the task of understanding the total life of the ante-bellum South.

William Johnson was a Natchez, Mississippi, free Negro barber whose native capacities and versatile interests exceeded his meager formal education. Hence, his day-by-day jottings from 1835 to 1851 have come down to us in sentence structures and spellings arresting and amusing to the reader, but obviously requiring the closest workmanship on the part of the editors in order to preserve in printed form exactly the ideas Johnson wrote in the pages of his diary. Since this reviewer made extensive use of the diary in its original form some years ago, he is in a position to compliment the editors highly on their craftmanship. The following quotations about Seargent S. Prentiss illustrate the varied responsibilities of Hogan and Davis: "Mr S. S. Prentiss Dellivered a fine speech at the Court House in presence of a very Large Congregation—I was out to day," and "Mr S S Prentess Gets Shaved twice To Day—Something Out. I think I Know."

Although the diary is devoted heavily to items of personal expenses, the buying and selling by Johnson of land, horses, razors, canary birds, and slaves (for he was himself a slave holder), much in the diary reflects the happenings at political rallies, barbecues, and other gatherings when such men as Prentiss, Quitman, George Poindexter, and Jefferson Davis spoke at Whig and Democratic conclaves. Although Johnson could not vote, in his barber shop, where only whites were served, he heard politics discussed, and his curiosity was so whetted that he went to hear the orators speak. His impressions were recorded on so many occasions that the student of public address in America should know and use this book for its intrinsic worth.

DALLAS C. DICKEY,
University of Florida

SAY AMEN, BROTHER. By William H. Pipes. New York: The William Frederick Press, 1951; pp. i+210. $4.00.

Among the many folk contributions of the Negro to American culture is the peculiar type

of public address known as "old-time Negro preaching" and immortalized by James Weldon Johnson in *God's Trombones*. However, so far as this reviewer knows, no objective appraisal of this phenomenon has been attempted until the present volume.

Although the author states that his intention is to make "an interpretative study," he uses the ancient rhetorical method of Cicero. In spite of this fact the result is highly readable, even fascinating. Well documented with excellent commentary and thirty-seven pages of notes, the book is a splendid addition to a heretofore neglected area in the history of American homiletics.

Although the author's method is rhetorical, his use in chapter headings of phrases drawn from the eight recorded sermons is in itself an innovation. For example, "Fire Shut Up In My Bones" is a discussion of purposes and subject matter; "The Man of God" is an examination of ethical proof; "Benches Can't Say Amen" examines the use of emotional proof; "Gwine Fan the Flies Outta Yo' Face" analyzes the style of the speakers; and "You Don't Have to Think" the *dispositio* and delivery of the sermons. Furthermore, the eight recordings of these impromptu addresses are an invaluable supplement to the literature of public address, although admittedly the sermons must be heard in their original setting if their full flavor is to be preserved. Especially interesting to students of homiletics is the discussion of George Whitefield's influence on the development of this style of preaching.

The subtitle on the jacket of the book, "A Study in American Frustration," indicates the principal weakness of the study, namely, that the author is constantly making both rhetorical and sociological evaluations. The final paragraph of nearly every chapter constitutes a refrain emphasizing that the Negro's status in America has created the characteristics of the speaker and the speaking. To my mind these concluding paragraphs were superimposed on the main body of material. Moreover, in the final chapter, "When It Comes Our Time to Die," after summarizing the study, the author concludes by proposing solutions for the social conditions which have caused the continuance of old-time Negro preaching.

I submit that the author cannot be both sociologist and rhetorician with any degree of competence. As a matter of fact, I am confident that social anthropologists would attack many of his conclusions, as for example: "The American Negro possesses an emotional, superstitious temperament whose historical roots reach back through slavery to the jungles of Africa. . . ." Inasmuch as the study was confined to Macon County, Georgia, because it remains (1942) closest to the conditions of slavery, such a generalization about "the American Negro" hardly seems valid. The conclusion of the study, in my opinion, digresses from the purpose of a rhetorical investigation, unless the word "interpretative" is intended to give license to the author's dual purpose.

Of the eight recorded speeches I would question only the fourth as an example of old-time Negro preaching. Even if we concede that such preaching existed only during slavery, and that these are its closest counterparts, "The Danger of Neglect" seems to be out of keeping with the other sermons. Certainly it contains many elements of the tradition which sought "arousements," but in purpose, in much of its content, and in its logical arrangement of ideas it seems a better example of a transitional style. Furthermore, it represents extemporaneous rather than impromptu speaking.

I would further question the authenticity of the excerpt from John Jasper's sermon quoted in Chapter 3 as an illustration of the original old-time Negro preaching. Jasper could neither read nor write, and recording devices such as the author used were unknown during his day. Undoubtedly, therefore, the transcriptions of Jasper's sermons were influenced by what the listener (William E. Hatcher?) thought he heard the colorful preacher say.

The author notes the absence of social protest in the sermons against the very conditions which created and perpetuated old-time Negro preaching. In only one sermon does a speaker start to mention the white man; realizing that he is on forbidden ground, he immediately changes the subject. The old-time Negro preacher offers religion as a substitute for worldly cares and points to heaven as a place where "conditions" will be different. Might not the frenzied reactions of the audience to such statements and to descriptions of heaven as a land of milk and honey be in themselves an implied criticism of the status quo? And is not the insistence of the minister that "conditions" will change, although the conditions are never actually described, a kind of social protest?

Finally, the discussion of the moral weaknesses of *some* of the old time preachers in the chapter on ethical proof is undocumented and therefore in the realm of hearsay and gossip. Although the author's intention is not to disparage these old-time preachers, such unsup-

ported statements have no place in an objective study.

These, however, are personal reactions which in no way impair the inherent value of the book. I heartily recommend it to both specialist and layman as an interesting and provocative study.

THOMAS D. PAWLEY,
Lincoln University [*Missouri*]

A RAIL SPLITTER FOR PRESIDENT. By Wayne C. Williams. Denver: University of Denver Press, 1951; pp. x+242. $3.00.

THE LINCOLN OF THE THIRTIETH CONGRESS. By Roy D. Packard. Boston: Christopher Publishing House, 1950; pp. 52. $1.75.

Because Mr. Williams has used newspapers almost exclusively as source materials and has concentrated on a single period, May to November, 1860, *A Rail Splitter for President* is a useful addition to the library of Lincolniana.

Out of the wealth of material consulted, Mr. Williams has brought together for emphasis some relatively unknown and interesting sidelights on the 1860 campaign for the Presidency. For example, the author accounts for the "strategy of silence" of the Republican nominee. Lincoln did not write or make a single speech during this campaign, although one million copies of the 1858 debates were printed and distributed. The role of the "pen and platform" campaigners for Lincoln: Carl Schurz, Horace Greeley, William Seward, Leonard Swett, and Lyman Trumbull, is described in detail. The attack on Douglas by southern journalists who evidently feared his "Freeport Doctrine" more than they feared Lincoln's abolitionism makes interesting reading. All readers will enjoy, too, the depiction of the campaign in song, cartoon, and verse.

The lasting value of Mr. Williams' work, however, has been diminished by three principal weaknesses. The first is the organization of materials. It seems to this reviewer that the chapters, "Enthusiasm for Lincoln," "Greeley and His Pen," and "Lincoln's Journalistic Friends" might well be consolidated. Similarly, coherence within the chapter would be improved markedly by the consolidation of many one-sentence paragraphs. The second weakness relates to minor contradictions in substance. On page 173, for example, the author reports the election returns: "When it is remembered that he (Douglas) carried Springfield, that he lost Sangamon County by less than one hundred votes . . . ;" on page 218, Mr. Williams says: "It must not be forgotten that out of the thousands of votes to be cast for president that fall in Springfield, Lincoln was to carry his home city by 69 votes, while Douglas carried Sangamon County by 42 votes." Such inaccuracies may be trivial but they cast suspicion on the reliability of the research. The third shortcoming is the absence of footnotes, complete newspaper titles, complete bibliographical references, and index. These omissions detract greatly from the value of the book as a "handy reference" for the Lincoln scholar.

If reiteration is useful, then the principal values in the slight volume *The Lincoln of the Thirtieth Congress* are: (1) the portrayal of Lincoln as an astute, purposeful politician who sought the friendship of national leaders and took advantage of every opportunity during a single term in Congress to further his political fortunes; (2) the far-reaching, unfortunate results of Lincoln's "Spot" Resolutions upon his personal popularity and upon the public esteem for the Whig Party in Illinois; and (3) the value of the "graduate course" in legislative procedure to Lincoln in the succeeding years. The book has no table of contents, no bibliography, no index.

MILDRED F. BERRY,
Rockford College

YANKEE ELOQUENCE IN THE MIDDLE WEST: THE OHIO LYCEUM 1850-1870. By David Mead. East Lansing: Michigan State College Press, 1951; pp. viii+273. $4.50.

As the railroads struck westward across the Alleghenies in the middle of the last century they carried into the rich farm lands of the Ohio Valley not only the manufactured products of an industrial East, but also scores of emissaries of Eastern culture in the guise of professional lyceum lecturers. The story of these lecturers and their reception by Ohio audiences is told with unusual competence in *Yankee Eloquence in the Middle West.*

Working from correspondence, published and manuscript journals, and the records of lecture sponsors, as well as from contemporary newspaper accounts, Mr. Mead recreates in considerable detail the Ohio lecture careers of fifteen prominent lyceum speakers—Emerson, Giles, Whipple, Melville, Alcott, Curtis, Godwin, Phillips, Taylor, Brownson, Beecher, Parker, Holmes, Benjamin, and Saxe. In addition, he presents an outline history of the popular lecture system in Ohio from its beginnings in the early 1830's.

Perhaps of greatest significance is the treat-

ment of the lyceum as an essential element in the pattern of nineteenth-century Ohio culture, and the demonstration that public taste, as exhibited by audience reaction to lyceum lecturers, gradually changed in the decades between 1850 and 1870. In particular, Mr. Mead points out that although the lyceum took root in Ohio largely because settlers from New England brought with them a "passion" for their traditional institutions, once it was firmly established the new civilization of the Middle West, "displaying a strong sectional spirit, saw in the lyceum system a means of furthering an independent Western culture." Consequently, a reaction against Eastern speakers did much to hasten the decline of the lyceum movement throughout the state.

Because of the careful research upon which it is based, *Yankee Eloquence in the Middle West* is a valuable work in its own right, and stands as a contribution to intellectual history as well as to the history of American public address. Moreover, it is rich in suggestions for future studies and, together with Mary Whitford Graham's recent thesis on the Ohio lyceum between 1840 and 1860, provides a model that may well be followed in investigations of the lyceum system in other states.

Although the style of the book shows unmistakably that it is a revision of the author's doctoral study, this fact should detract little from its usefulness for those interested in learning more about that "democratic, romantic adventure in the growth of a nation's culture" —the American lyceum.

DOUGLAS EHNINGER,
University of Florida

ROADS TO AGREEMENT: SUCCESSFUL METHODS IN THE SCIENCE OF HUMAN RELATIONS. By Stuart Chase. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1951; pp. xiii+250. $2.75.

Stuart Chase's book should be read on its own terms, as a survey of what specialists in labor relations, anthropology, semantics, psychology, and sociology today know about "the principles by which people get along together or do not get along." The pages abound in "specific cases and situations where agreement has been reached, or conflict reduced." The author ranges from the efforts of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers Union to the Foreign Service Institute, from the happenings in a Quaker meeting to the art of the Chief of the Federal Mediation and Conciliation Service who said, "There is a technique [of settling management-labor disputes] all right, but you couldn't put it into words." (Mr. Ching should read Chapter 15.)

Those familiar with Chase's writings will discover again his lucid narrative style, his facility for dramatizing the prosaic, his capacity for summarizing without compromising the complexities, his eye for the useful detail as he plows through masses of material.

I wish, however, that my colleagues in public speaking would read this book with an additional and narrower focus on some of the views that social scientists seem to be developing about rhetoric. I have space for but one: that the lecture, speech, or straight-line pattern of communication from speaker to listener has come to be considered a relatively ineffective instrument for producing human action. Here is one of many examples:

> First the housewives were given the standard lecture system. Like college students, they were put into a room, provided with notebooks, and told to pay attention to the professor. As a result of this instructive performance, about 3 per cent shifted their buying habits.
>
> Then another approach was tried. Unlike most college students, housewives were gathered in groups with a competent discussion leader and asked to discuss the war, the food shortage, a balanced diet, vitamins, and the various cuts of meat. As a result, *32 per cent* changed their buying habits, more than ten times the lecture-system figure.
>
> The lecturer told the women what to do and most of them balked. In the group program they told themselves what to do, and ten times as many began to act.

I want to ask some questions about this. Would my colleagues have been able to predict the ineffectiveness of the explanations used? Is "the standard lecture system" another sophisticated stereotype? Since there are lectures and lectures, how do we know that the ones used were not illustrations of the worst speaking techniques? What would happen if the speakers had been trained by our people? I am unwilling to accept the conclusions of the social scientists in this area until they discover and utilize what we know about the rhetorical arts. We may have to run some experiments ourselves.

IRVING J. LEE,
Northwestern University

THE FUNDAMENTALS OF SPEAKING. By Wilbur E. Gilman, Bower Aly, and Loren D. Reid. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1951; pp. x+608. $4.00.

The publication of this sound and comprehensive text should guarantee the authors a place in the speech field similar to that of such writers as Woolbert and Winans. The present market is glutted with new texts. Some of them will doubtless prove superior to older works, but most of them have been hastily written. *The Fundamentals of Speaking* is the result of at least seventeen years' work. Part II appeared as a trial edition under the title of *Speech Preparation;* Part III was tested under the title, *A Course Book in Oral Communication;* and other material appeared previously in three editions of *A Course Book in Public Speaking.*

These experienced teachers have no kite to fly, no axe to grind. Sound rhetorical principles are explained in terminology appropriate for the contemporary classroom. The text is fairly free from academic jargon, and no attempt is made to turn a speech class into a psychiatric clinic.

Along with Crocker, Monroe, and a very few others, the authors have developed a careful, even thoughtful, plan of presenting material. The text is divided into eight parts: (I) Introduction: Survey and Preview. (II) The Speech: Preparation and Delivery. (III) The Speaker: Thought and Action. (IV) The Purpose: End and Means. (V) The Subject: Knowledge and Method. (VI) The Audience: Belief and Aims. (VII) The Occasion: Nature and Types. (VIII) Conclusion: Opportunities and Uses. The eight parts are further divided into twenty-eight chapters, each followed by useful classroom exercises and carefully selected references.

The nineteen pages devoted to the Appendices include the speech delivered by Winston Churchill before the Joint Session of Congress, December 26, 1941; a student's speech, "The Art of Catching Suckers"; and a ten-page index.

The authors have attempted to resolve the old dilemma, "If you master the text, it will take the term to do it, but if you do not master the text, you do not know how to make a speech; hence you will not know how to prepare a speech until you are through with the course," by developing each section as a unit in itself. In the preface they state:

> This book offers sections to be used in whatever order seems best, devoted to the speaker, the purpose, the subject, the audience, and the occasion. . . . Complete flexibility of the text, however, makes possible any rearrangement or omission of chapters that seems best.

The question immediately arises, "How can a teacher know what a particular group of students needs until he has heard them speak several times, and how can the assignments be kept uniform in a class whose students present a diversity of problems?" A mature and experienced teacher might foresee problems repeated year after year; to him the flexibility of the text will prove a delight; but if the beginning speech classes are entrusted to assistants and instructors, chaos might result.

However, this text is so full of pointed examples, interesting quotations, and good common sense, that the individual student should find it not only lively but stimulating reading. He might even be tempted to read the book from cover to cover in the first two weeks. And if a student is inspired to do that, no teacher can ask more of any text.

LELAND T. CHAPIN,
Stanford University

THE COMMUNICATION OF IDEAS. By Curtis Bradford and Hazel Moritz. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1951; pp. ix+400. $3.00.

This textbook has been developed from experience with the Basic Communication program at Grinnell College. Like most early editions of texts designed for a specific situation, it may not meet the needs of other courses. However, since the authors state in their preface that a goal in the writing was to present the "minimum essentials" of writing and speaking, reading and listening, the enterprising teacher could doubtless make the text fit his course.

After an introductory chapter on thinking, the authors treat the fundamental processes of written and spoken composition. Wherever possible, they use a parallel construction; for example, one chapter discusses the planning of the speech or essay, since the two forms are similar. Basic unity of communication—thought groups, sentences and words—are considered.

The following section deals separately with elements of the processes particular to speaking or writing: the presentation of the speech, the action of the speaker, the voice, the writing of a paper, the minimum essentials of written composition. Part IV is a two-chapter attempt to include reading and listening in the text. The fifth part presents the steps in the writing

of a research paper. Although the book is an admirable attempt to bring together the various phases of a course in communication, the content does not present enough detail to please all teachers. If the student has time to do much reading in a college introductory course, the teacher may be disappointed in the too-brief chapter on reading. And until more research is done, and more techniques reported, we shall have to work through the chapter on listening with something less than complete satisfaction.

DON STREETER,
Memphis State College

ARGUMENTATION AND DEBATE. By James H. McBurney, James M. O'Neill and Glen E. Mills. (Revised Edition). New York: The Macmillan Company, 1951; pp. 343. $3.50.

This book is a new and extensive revision of O'Neill and McBurney, *The Working Principles of Argument*, published in 1932. According to the Preface (p. vi), each of the authors assumed major responsibility for certain specific chapters. The nineteen chapters were so divided that McBurney considered such topics as "The Responsibility of the Advocate," "Discussion as Preparation for Debate," and "Explanation as Argument"; O'Neill "Analyzing the Proposition: The Issues," "Evidence," "The Composition of the Argument"; and Mills "The Proposition," "Reading as Preparation for Debate," "The Case," and "Briefing and Outlining."

Despite the division of labor, the book presents a uniform point of view. All three authors hold a solid, mainly classical, concept of argumentation, firmly Attic in its principal philosophic implications. The main points of emphasis are the content, the evidence, the logic of the case. The chapters dealing with the actual seeking of audience agreement, however, seem to have been written as re-definitions and defenses of such older notions as the conviction-persuasion dichotomy, and a classification of motive appeals.

By frequent quotations from Aristotle, Whately, Adams, and others, the authors demonstrate the present-day usefulness of many of the older rhetorical principles and methods. One might wish, however, that the implications of the writings of such pioneers in the field of interpersonal relationships as Rogers, Lewin, Korzybski, Bales, Johnson, Chase, and others could also have been used as a basis for the theory of argumentation presented.

The book contains useful exercises at the end of each chapter; it is concisely written and handsomely bound. Its contribution lies in its clear restatement of the classical principles of invention and disposition.

DONALD H. ECROYD,
University of Alabama

FUNDAMENTALS OF SPEECH. By David Guy Powers. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1951; pp. xiv+380. $3.50.

According to the preface of this text, "The scope of the book is broad, the arrangement of material is cumulative, activity is the method, and effectiveness the aim." Although the author grants that skill in speaking is not an end in itself, he devotes the first half of his text to training the student in the use of words, voice, and articulation. "The student first acquires skills and then is taught the judicious use of the skills acquired." The fact that exercises for refinement of skills are emphasized before the student is motivated to communicate with his audience is regrettable.

The four basic skills discussed are the social, the semantic, the vocal, and the phonetic. Extension and precision of vocabulary are undoubtedly desirable, but can assignments for looking up words in the dictionary solve semantic difficulties? Some expressions such as: "A dynamic person has a lifelike voice" or "Let the tone come forth free" are alarmingly vague. Experts would have difficulty in completing the assignment to explain and demonstrate resonant, vibrant, and hollow voice qualities. Explanations of the positions of the speech mechanism do not allow for some necessary variations in placements of the tongue.

The last three sections cover public speaking, conference speaking (discussion, parliamentary procedure, and debate), and the speech arts (interpretation, conversation, radio and television speaking). The self-testing questions on parliamentary procedure, the emphasis on the art of asking questions, the self-criticism charts, the sample speeches with splendid analyses, and a bibliography of visual aids strengthen the book. More information on the collection and selection of materials and more detailed help on outlining are needed. The primary weakness is that the chapters are not arranged in sequence so that the student can practice communication as a whole before concentrating on specific processes and skills.

MARGARET WOOD,
Northern Illinois State Teachers College

THE SUCCESSFUL SPEAKER'S HANDBOOK. By Herbert V. Prochnow. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951; pp. viii+343. $4.50.

WORKING WONDERS WITH WORDS. By Wilfred Womersley. New York: E. P. Dutton and Co., Inc., 1951; pp. 285. $3.50.

The field of speech has not escaped the plethora of volumes pouring from the presses through the efforts of determined authors and their more determined henchmen, the publishers. The two books used as the basis for this companion review were written for consumption of the apparently insatiable public.

The Successful Speaker's Handbook was written by a banker who has practiced much public speaking and writes primarily out of his own experience. That he is a leading authority on public speaking (as the book flap proclaims) might be questioned by a discerning reader. That the author has enthusiasm for the skill of public speaking and a real desire that others learn the skill cannot be denied. Much in this book is good advice to the beginning speaker; many of the exercises in voice, breathing, and articulation are practical methods of securing improvement. Many of the difficulties in speaking are over-simplified and many of the suggestions for improvement do not warrant the emphasis they are given. For example, the author advises, "Practice bathroom singing by all means." The examples and illustrations from selected speeches are well chosen and contribute heavily to the development of the techniques presented. This is not a textbook for the class room, but it is one of the better books on public speaking now cluttering the book stalls.

Working Wonders With Words has little to commend it. Although the publishing date is 1951, much of this book might have been written at a much earlier date. One of the nine chapters is devoted to melody and another to memory. The chief criticism is that the book is incomplete. The discussion of memory takes up approximately twenty-five pages; only eighteen pages cover the broad areas of voice, adjustment to the speaking situation, gestures, handling of notes, etc. The author does not reveal a practical experience with speaking as does the author of the first book in this review. The chapters on debating and radio technique are particularly weak. The style is uninteresting. "Too little and too late" probably best describes the work.

THOMAS R. LEWIS,
Florida State University

GENERAL EDUCATION IN TRANSITION. Edited by H. T. Morse. Minneapolis: The University of Minnesota Press, 1951; pp. ix+310. $3.50.

One of the outcomes of any attempt to deal with students is a constant striving for better results in teaching. Good teachers can never be satisfied with their achievements or their methods. Thus a willingness to try out new theories and procedures is understandable in teachers, even when the search for new ideas makes a full circle and old theories return to favor.

Not too many years ago liberal education was the theme. Later came progressive education, although, generally speaking, this movement did not affect the colleges. Now general education is paramount, and for some reason it bypassed elementary and secondary schools and adult education to settle on the colleges, particularly in the first two years of work. Some time ago a number of colleges began to experiment with general education, but not until 1945 and the Report of the Harvard Committee did the term become a household word. Since then the flow of literature on the subject has been steady.

General Education In Transition is an outgrowth of the University of Minnesota conference on general education held in the spring of 1949. The theme of the conference was "What Should be the Next Steps in Experimentation and Research in General Education?" and the book in general adheres to this theme. The first part by Earl J. McGrath, Clarence H. Faust, and others analyzes current trends; the second gives the reports of the various workshop groups including the one on communication drawn up by Harold B. Allen; the third lists problems and some considerations in planning a program of research.

Those who have been confused about general education may find some enlightenment; old-fashioned liberal educators may discover that they have been general educators without knowing it. In other words, we all have much in common; most of us have the same goals, and we differ only in the means of attainment. Moreover, most educators would welcome more research in education, including research on the basic needs of students. The section on communication will add nothing new to those who have followed the movement, but it may help clarify the place of communication in the scheme of general education.

Underlying some of the presentations are assumptions that give concern to many. One

is that the ills of our society, and they are many, are attributable to our failure in higher education. College teachers are willing to accept entirely too much responsibility. Another is that the curriculum is the heart of the institution: if it can only be organized in a certain way the job will be done. We must never forget that the teacher is the heart of our problem, and if he is good, what course he teaches makes little difference; a significant point is that many of the authors stress the lack of good teachers in general education. That is the problem in any system. Another assumption lurking always in the background is that the human being is capable of being molded by education into a preconceived design. A wise teacher will always look into the eyes and hearts of his students and adapt his teaching to them; but he can never create the design.

These are the bothersome questions. On the whole, however, Dean Morse and the others have given us a balanced, stimulating view of general education. At the same time they have emphasized an aspect that many will welcome—the "next steps" or the need of experimentation and research. A sufficient number of institutions are now engaged in some form of general education. The period of evangelism is over. The time has come to conduct thorough research.

ELBERT W. HARRINGTON,
University of South Dakota

A HANDBOOK FOR COLLEGE TEACHERS. Edited by Bernice Brown Cronkhite. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1950; pp. vii+267. $3.00.

College presidents and department chairmen, in seeking candidates for appointment to college faculties, are in practice almost forced to look for men or women with a doctor's degree. The graduate student has had in most cases, however, little opportunity to think about teaching. During his post-graduate years emphasis has been placed quite properly on mastery of a subject in a given field of knowledge. A small percentage of students in a graduate school may be able to gain apprentice experience in teaching by serving as assistants, section instructors, or teaching fellows, but the majority face a class for the first time after they have left the graduate school, degree in hand.

These statements from the Foreword to *A Handbook for College Teachers* suggest the purpose of the faculty of the Radcliffe Graduate School in arranging an extra-curricular course of evening lectures for graduate students of Radcliffe and Harvard who were looking forward to college teaching. The present volume is a collection of these lectures edited for publication.

Six of the eighteen chapters are concerned with vital aspects of teaching other than classroom procedures. Edith G. Stedman, Director of the Appointment Bureau at Radcliffe, and David Owen, Professor of History at Harvard, give sound advice on the all-important question of finding a position. The latter even tells the graduate student the kind of letter not to write. Paul H. Buck, Provost of Harvard, discusses the problems of the new Ph.D. as he tries to find himself in his profession and at the same time fit himself into the organization of the college in which he is teaching. In discussing the proper balance between research and teaching, Dr. Buck says, "Each can facilitate the work of the other. Research will keep teaching alive. Teaching will keep research meaningful."

A. Baird Hastings, Professor of Biological Chemistry at Harvard, speaks of the contributions of professional societies to the college teacher: they provide a platform where the novice can be seen and heard; they offer a forum for criticism and discussion; they publish journals; they maintain an atmosphere congenial to friendship within one's chosen profession.

Howard Mumford Jones, Wallace B. Donham, and Robert Ulich give scholarly consideration to *Significant Aspects of Higher Education in the United States.*

Of greatest interest to those of us who teach speech, *per se,* is the emphasis placed on speech as a factor in successful teaching by those whose primary interests lie in other fields. Nine eminent teachers who wished to give practical suggestions to their own graduate students discussed techniques they had found useful. Neilson Campbell Hannay, Professor of English at Suffolk University, dealt exclusively with the speech process: breathing, posture, pitch, quality, rate, emphasis, total effectiveness. Eight discussed other aspects of the teacher-learning process: criteria, evaluation, such aids as sound recorders and films, the psychology of student response to the lecture, and specific techniques appropriate to the areas of the humanities, natural science, and social science. Without exception, these eight master teachers empha-

sized skill in speech as a necessary qualification of an effective teacher.

André Morize, *Teaching the Humanities*, states his thesis very simply in his second paragraph: "So what I hope to put before you is simply how to prepare, how to organize, and how to deliver a lecture in a classroom especially in the field of humanities." Speech teachers may suggest that the last phrase is unnecessary, but at the same time we appreciate Professor Morize's point of view. Elliot Perkins, Lecturer on History, Harvard University, says bluntly, "If you cannot speak, learn to; if you cannot learn to, don't teach." Ivor A. Richards examines the "lecture" critically: "Speech and reading come to the ear and to the attention with different gaits. It is odd that so many teachers will without compunction read out to their classes papers written for print—as though they had never been in an audience themselves." Professor William G. Perry's discussion of the conflicts in the learning process is one of the best chapters in the book. His concept of the Me-They cycle is an interesting approach to the whole question of speaker-audience psychology. Gordon Allport, primarily concerned with evaluation, mentions what he calls "vocal assertiveness" in judging the effectiveness of a teacher.

The book justifies its title, *A Handbook for College Teachers*. It offers valuable suggestions for the beginning college teacher who is developing his techniques and is equally stimulating to the experienced college teacher who very possibly may be a bit stale.

Wynett Barnett,
Wisconsin State College at Whitewater

LETTERS OF BENJAMIN RUSH. Edited by L. H. Butterfield. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1951; pp. lxxxvii+1295. $15.00.

One of the vital influences during America's surge for emancipation from traditional dogmas came from the pen of Dr. Benjamin Rush. He told the American people in 1787: "The American war is over; but this is far from being the case with the American revolution. On the contrary, nothing but the first act of this great drama is closed." Spirited minds sought for the United States not only individual freedom but opportunity to challenge institutions, beliefs, behavior, and scientific opinion.

Physician general in the Continental Army under George Washington, signer of the Declaration of Independence, and one of the most public-spirited men of the time, Dr. Rush wrote voluminously and carefully on almost every subject needing the spur of revolt. His opinions on matters of government, education, economics, and his own profession of medicine were highly regarded. So defiantly and honestly did he lead in controversies with his contemporaries that in later years it became politically hazardous for his son Richard, who had become Attorney General under President Monroe, to permit the publication of his father's autobiography.

Although Rush was held in sacred esteem by many of his contemporaries, when his autobiography failed to appear in print, the force of his influence died swiftly and remained unrevived until the recent publication of his autobiography and letters.

In addition to letters revealing early American customs and problems of human interest, the intimate correspondence with and concerning political figures such as George Washington, John Adams, Patrick Henry, James Madison, and Thomas Jefferson will prove intriguing to the student of speech. Included in these volumes are many letters to his son James, who followed his father's inquiries into diseases of mind with his own medical investigations from which emerged *The Philosophy of the Human Voice*.

The edition of these 650 letters, carefully documented and replete with notes, makes illuminating, inspirational, and fascinating reading.

Lester L. Hale,
University of Florida

BRITISH AND AMERICAN ENGLISH SINCE 1900. By Eric Partridge and John W. Clark. New York: Philosophical Library, 1951; pp. 341. $4.75.

This book is a hodgepodge made up largely of snippets of information and irrelevant digressions running up to several pages. In addition to the two principal authors, other writers contribute eight pages on Canadian English, five on South African, six on New Zealand (two authors contribute three pages apiece), six on English in India, seven on Cockney, and five on the teaching of English. Mr. Partridge contributes five pages on Australian, and another author five more. From Mr. Partridge come most of the digressions. We learn (p. 43) that England in 1945 had become ". . . almost as totalitarian as Mussolini's Italy or Hitler's Germany or Stalin's Russia. . . ." He devotes pages 129-134 to the decline of religion and pages

134-136 to the rise of collectivism from a point of view that makes Colonel Blimp and Herbert Hoover seem dangerous radicals. Comments on the decline of the essay as a literary form lead up to a ten-page list (pp. 149-159) of essays published since 1890.

What virtue the book has can be credited to Professor John W. Clark of the University of Minnesota, who contributes the American section of something over a hundred pages. Professor Clark writes well, even trenchantly, and has taken the trouble to organize his material. I have only detailed technical objections to portions of this section. One is the author's attempt to fit American dialects into the old threefold division of Eastern, Southern, and Western, a classification which, among other things, makes Philadelphia western. The notion that Eastern and Western share a system of vowels and diphthongs in contrast with Southern (p. 274) is a bit hard to take. Actually, most vowel variants, e.g., those of *orange*, *hurry*, and *carry*, have their chief differences between east-coast and inland usage; relatively few, such as that of *on*, make the division on a north-south basis. The peculiar diphthong of New York City *bird* is shared with New Orleans and the Deep South, not with the West. The notion that the difference between unstressed *uh* and *ih* in endings like that of *corrected* is the difference between unsophisticated and sophisticated speech is certainly an oversimplification. Differences between unstressed *uh* and *ih* are complicated according to the category of word in which they are used, and according to a fairly complex geographical pattern. *Ih* is less common in what the author calls Eastern speech than in Southern, and the degree of sophistication seems to be completely irrelevant. The notion (p. 307) that writing lends itself to real teaching better than speaking is one that I, as a teacher of speech, find hard to accept; I suspect that the products of the speech classes are at least as good as those of the composition classes.

These, however, are minor criticisms. If the rest of the book measured up to Professor Clark's portion, it would have some excuse for being. As it is, the best thing the publisher could do would be to issue Professor Clark's section by itself.

C. K. Thomas,
Cornell University

THE THEATRE BOOK OF THE YEAR: 1950-1951. A RECORD AND AN INTERPRETATION. By George Jean Nathan. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1951; pp. x+294+indices. $4.00.

Nathan surveys the season with the same lively wit, the same acute sense, and the same high standards that have made him for nearly half a century now the most delightful critic in America. If his long acquaintance with the theatre makes him lose patience with such stale plots as *Affairs of State* and speculate on how thoroughly Queen Victoria would have enjoyed *The Moon Is Blue*, it also enables him to debunk the current theory that musical comedies are more serious and more American than those of half a century ago.

If he refuses to go along with the crowd, he can show good reasons why. Quite harsh on Tennessee Williams, he calls *The Rose Tattoo* little more than alley cat sex melodrama. He groans at *Darkness at Noon* for hitting us over the head with what we already know. He finds both Arthur Miller and Paul Green foolishly mistaken to try to modernize Ibsen. He finds Margaret Webster's directing of *Taming of the Shrew* atrocious and Olivia de Haviland's Juliet totally incompetent. Yet when he must shout for joy, as for *The Lady's Not for Burning*, he just as carefully sorts out the good, the fair, and the poor.

Nathan is impatient with pretense. He repeatedly scores ANTA for big claims and poor performance. He violently dislikes arena, audience participation, performances in hotel ballrooms, and anything that takes the glamor from the theatre.

Whether chiding the producer of *The Relapse* for knowing too little about Restoration comedy, or the actors in *Ring Around the Moon* for their mixture of acting styles, or telling anecdotes to chide Aldous Huxley for his low regard for the theatre, Nathan writes with wonderful wit. Look sharp if you disagree with him; his wit always makes a point.

George R. Kernodle,
University of Tulsa

THEATRE-IN-THE-ROUND. By Margo Jones. New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1951; pp. 244. Illus. $2.25.

This book is essentially a statement of Margo Jones's dreams, efforts, and accomplishments toward the establishment of a decentralized, national, professional theatre in America. It is sometimes autobiography, sometimes history, and sometimes practical discussion of ways to establish a self-supporting professional theatre on a reasonable budget.

Miss Jones's philosophy is briefly: the nation needs and wants a permanent, resident, professional, non-profit theatre in every important city. Any city ready for modern industries, hotels, and shops is able to support such a theatre. Furthermore, creating it is the business of capable theatre people. American theatre is changing but potentially healthy, as evidenced by a shrinking Broadway and "road," and growing summer theatres, "Off-Broadway" groups, educational, and community theatres. These latter groups are fine training grounds and showcases for talent, but to prevent American theatre disintegration, the greatest immediate need is for local, completely professional theatres able and willing to produce new scripts and classics with high production standards.

To fulfill this need, Miss Jones advocates theatre-in-the-round as one practical and artistically satisfactory method; she believes that any good play can be successfully adapted to it. In contrast to other methods, the arena is less expensive to operate, and, generally, is more easily provided with a satisfactory building.

Miss Jones attempts to show how such a theatre can be successfully organized and operated. Evidence is largely drawn from her experiences and the records of her own Theatre '50 in Dallas, which fits the pattern she has in mind. Problems of organization, budget, and finance, personnel, selection and treatment of plays and playwrights, and characteristics of the adequate theatre physical plant are discussed. Theatre-in-the-round techniques as they concern actor, director, technician, costumer, property man, and audience are separately treated. She logs and describes all plays produced by Theatre '50. Appendices include the Theatre '50 repertory system, the cast for each of its productions, a list of most theatres-in-the-round operating today, and a bibliography related to central staging.

Though poorly organized and often irrelevant, this is an interesting, perhaps a valuable book. It professes a philosophy, dynamic although not new, and displays a great deal of know-how. Those establishing new theatres or nursing sick ones may find it a practical reference. It will also interest those who wish to know Margo Jones and her Theatre '50.

PAUL W. DAVEE,
State University of Iowa

A PRIMER OF PLAYWRITING. By Kenneth Macgowan. New York: Random House, Inc., 1951; pp. 210. $2.25.

For a young playwright perhaps the only convincing lesson in dramaturgy is to see his work staged before an audience. Next to this, no doubt, is the advice of an acknowledged master of the theatre medium. Such a master is Kenneth Macgowan, producer of plays in Hollywood, New York, and elsewhere, and the author of many stimulating books on the theatre.

Mr. Macgowan calls his book a primer and modestly urges its brevity as one praiseworthy feature. I would extol its gently bantering style, which makes brevity the least of its virtues, and strengthens by understatement the current attitude that the playwright must select for himself the aesthetic and the techniques that apply to him.

Like most of the major writers on dramaturgy, Mr. Macgowan seeks the "true elixir," and finds it in complication. Whether or not he is correct in assigning primary importance to complications, no one could object to the opening of the young playwright's mind to this major device of plot construction. One could wish, however, that instead of analyzing *A Doll's House* in illustration of his point, he had undertaken to point out the complications in *The Death of A Salesman*. Mr. Macgowan invites his reader to examine this play for himself. This reader did so, and found only three complications: Biff's discovery that Willy had a woman, the buried cause of the rift between father and son; the incident of the two boys leaving Willy in the restaurant, which precipitated the death of Willy; and the financial success of Willy's brother, Ben, which, as part of a world of insecure values, helped to keep Willy confused. There are many *changes* throughout the play, but most of these seem to be inherent in the basic maladjustment between Willy's gentle spirit and the changing, sharpened world. It seems to me that Mr. Macgowan's broad definition of "complication" is simply evidence of his perception of the Hegelian "elixir," the essential instability of human conditions as the core of the dramatic.

But I am sure that differences of definition, or even of opinion, among critics, are not very important; for our student, the creative playwright, will listen with one ear to his teacher's words, and pore with his whole soul over his material. And this is exactly what Mr. Macgowan would have him do.

MARIAN GALLAWAY,
University of Alabama

THE MYSTERY OF HAMLET, OR WHAT YOU WILL. By Percy Mackaye. New York: Bond Weil Wright Co., 1950; pp. 675. $6.50.

Modern writers make a constant effort to rework classic myths into modern terms; inevitably Shakespeare's *Hamlet* would be handled in this fashion. Percy Mackaye has written a tetralogy, *The Mystery of Hamlet, or What You Will,* a work which deals with the imagined events leading up to the Shakespearean play. One would like to judge this work of art on its own merits, to be able to say that here is a new light thrown upon an old subject; unfortunately, this modern version has so many echoes of the older Hamlet that independent judgment is difficult. Mr. Mackaye is justly famed for his masques, and in this latest work much emphasis is placed upon pageantry and exotic lighting effects.

The play falls below its predecessor, Shakespeare's play, chiefly when it (for convenience the four plays will be spoken of as one) is examined from a dramatic point of view.

Mackaye has gone to great lengths to explain certain allusions in the Elizabethan *Hamlet;* but, as often happens in massive sagas, he is led into inconsistencies which, though they may in themselves be minor, detract from the total effect. For example, Horatio, Rosencrantz, and Guildenstern are present immediately after the death of the elder Hamlet. In Shakespeare's play these persons have been absent from the court. Young Hamlet, in Mackaye's version, has no designs upon the throne; he is overjoyed when his uncle is chosen as ruler. But Shakespeare's character is bitterly disappointed. The emphasis placed by Shakespeare on the youth's veneration for his father and the relegation of all other motives to a minor place in relation to his main desire—revenge—is completely overshadowed by an all-consuming passion for Ophelia. The elder Hamlet, about whom Mackaye is chiefly concerned, is a somewhat passive figure, not at all the fierce, warlike, active king clearly envisioned by Shakespeare.

In the Mackaye edition, the author and the designer collaborated upon a set of symbols to aid the reader in determining the place of action, the shifting from the real to the imaginary world. They have also thoughtfully marked the parts which are transcriptions of the Shakespearean text. But the passages in which the lines are reworked in a new context are not marked. If this play is to lead up to Shakespeare's, the foreshadowing of lines seems fortuitous at best. This foreshadowing is also seen in the events of the play. Thus the fatal duel between young Hamlet and Laertes apes one they fought while boys, and they fight over the grave of Yorick just as they are to do over the grave of Ophelia. Since Mackaye has undertaken the colossal task of elucidation, he might better have kept his independence. Prefiguring of this sort tends to confuse, or to qualify, one's recollection of the Shakespearean text.

Mr. Mackaye's work is by no means lacking in vitality and poetry—the verse has a melodious quality which enables the reader to follow the progression of scenes with ease. Only when one attempts to coordinate the dramatic import of the tetralogy with that of the Shakespearean play are one's critical faculties moved to action.

R. M. Hesse and
W. R. Mackenzie,
Washington University

MAKING WORDS COME ALIVE. By Cornelius C. Cunningham. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Co., 1951; pp. xiv+293. $3.50.

In the preface of his book, Professor Cunningham claims with justifiable pride his "heritage" as a "member of the second generation of Cumnock heirs" and acknowledges his indebtedness to the widely known *Choice Readings* of Dr. Robert McLean Cumnock, founder of the School of Speech of Northwestern University. The author goes on to say that this text is to lead to his own *Literature As A Fine Art,* published ten years ago. He states his unswerving belief that has formed these two texts, "because it is only when the art of oral interpretation of the written word is fused with the work of the creative artist who uses that word as his medium of expression under the aesthetic discipline, that literature can take its rightful place beside music, painting, architecture, sculpture, as a fully communicative art."

The author proceeds to develop this approach to oral interpretation in nine chapters which, following an introduction and a section headed, "Grasping the Meaning as a Whole," are devoted to the process of helping the student sink himself in the understanding of the literature, both form and content, which he is to interpret. Four chapters are thus headed "Using the Means of Association," each chapter having a parenthetical description such as Sight and Hearing. These chapters demonstrate the author's contention that "the sensory association which the writer makes with his audience becomes the chief means whereby the oral interpreter achieves those effects of expression which distinguish him from the mere reader of

words as words." Following these chapters is, "Making the Thought Your Own." Some readers of the text will probably feel that this chapter should follow the one discussing the importance of grasping the thought as a whole. Later chapters discuss the difficult problems of surrendering to the rhythm and melody of the work, and the necessity of putting the whole together again. The text concludes with a chapter on choric speaking by Dr. Charlotte Lee and one on "Choreographic Interpretation" by Dr. Robert Breen.

Without question this book makes a significant contribution to the teaching of a basic course in oral interpretation. The author's understanding and appreciation of literature as a fine art, his careful and stimulating analysis of important and interesting illustrative materials will be of immense value to student and teacher. Some chapters, however, may not fulfill Professor Cunningham's belief that this text teaches itself.

Teachers whose approach to the basic course is eclectic will find many chapters in the text useful. They may feel, however, that at the beginning level more emphasis, explicitly stated, should be put on the necessity of the student's realization that oral interpretation, like every other speech art, demands a communicative attitude, and that no matter how fine his appreciation and understanding of the literature, the student must develop the means of projecting that appreciation. Effective teachers and readers who have been concerned with awkward, unresponsive bodies and dull, inflexible voices as hindrances to communication will undoubtedly be distressed by Professor Cunningham's insistence upon what seems to him the folly of any direct attack upon the manner of the utterance of the words which they would be quick to agree are indeed the symbols "of sensations, ideas, of thoughts, of feelings." They may not feel as sure as he that communication will inevitably follow upon true understanding.

Whether or not he adopts this text as a whole or in part for a basic course, any teacher of oral interpretation of literature will find much stimulation and a heightened appreciation of the art through acquaintance with this book.

HELENE BLATTNER,
Stanford University

DRAMA ON THE AIR. By David R. Mackey. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951; pp. xvii + 168. $5.50.

This text is concerned with radio drama from the points of view of the actor, the producer, and the writer, with primary emphasis on acting and directing. The author begins with an introductory consideration of radio; he explains the nature of the broadcast medium and then proceeds to discuss the forms and characteristics of radio plays. A method of analyzing radio drama is followed by chapters devoted to applying this method to "The Text," a half-hour Columbia Workshop drama produced in 1942. Problems and techniques in presenting a radio drama are set forth in chapters dealing with characterization, perspective, stereotyped acting, and character projection. Two concluding textual chapters deal with production problems. The rest of the book consists of three radio plays (*The Hitch Hiker*, *My Uncle Willy*, and *The Death of the Average Man*), twenty-five scenes for class discussion and exercise, an appendix containing technical information bearing on types and uses of microphones, and a first-rate bibliography of radio drama.

The text is obviously intended for use in radio production and acting courses, possibly in radio writing courses. To this reader its main usefulness seems to lie in advice to would-be radio actors who ought to know more about what goes into a dramatic production than they can observe from the on-mike position. The treatment of writing and production seems too elementary for advanced courses in either of these fields, though the twenty-five short scenes included as exercise material will be helpful in any kind of radio dramatic instruction. The author's guide to analysis of a radio play is comprehensive and exacting, perhaps unduly so. It comprises a fifty-six page chapter which might well have beeen divided into less cumbersome units. The book suffers in style from the author's tendency to belabor simple points and to use two words or two sentences where one often might suffice. On the whole, however, he has written a creditable piece of work which will make useful reading for students interested in radio drama.

GIRAUD CHESTER,
Queens College

BRIEFLY NOTED

PRINCIPLES OF SPEECH—BRIEF EDITION. By Alan H. Monroe. (Revised edition). New York: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1951; pp. vi+337. $2.25.

A worthwhile revision of a popular speech text. The primary change has come with the addition of two chapters. "The speaker and his audience" and "How to arrange and out-

line related points" now bring the chapter total to ten. Both chapters are impressive additions to the older text.

What else is changed? The color of the cover has been subdued to grey; illustrations are increased from eighteen to twenty-nine; 337 pages of text appear in place of 303; sample speeches are new except in two instances; examples and references are refreshed; and a correction chart has been added on the inside back fly and cover to simplify marking of written outlines or even oral speeches for the common errors.

THOMAS R. LEWIS,
Florida State University

AMERICAN SPEECH. By Wilhelmina G. Hedde and William Norwood Brigance. (Third edition). Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1951; pp. xi+596. $2.80.

The third edition of the high school text *American Speech* is similar in tone and illustration to edition one. I liked edition one and therefore I liked edition three.

Some new points of interest are included in the latest edition—a chapter, for instance, on television—and the preface is a challenge to teachers. The book is divided into five sections which deal adequately with (1) everyday speech in democracy, (2) thought communication, (3) original speaking, (4) interpretation and (5) dramatics.

The style is direct and personal, somewhat narrative in flavor and should appeal to high school students. It is a sensible, interesting, attractive text.

MADELINE S. LONG,
Minneapolis Public Schools

STEPS TO MASTERY OF WORDS. By Nadine Fillmore. Aurora, Illinois: Educational Service, Inc., 1951; *Teacher's Guide Book*, pp. 120; *My Word Study Book*, pp. 112; and *Sound Chart*. $1.50.

This series of workbooks, each with a complete teacher's guide, should be of particular interest to teachers of speech because of the emphasis on phonics. Although designed for use at the lower elementary levels, it should also provide help for anyone, no matter what grade level, with reading or spelling difficulties tracing back to faulty word analysis techniques such as inability to divide words into syllables or inability to associate the appropriate sounds with the letters.

JAMES I. BROWN,
University of Minnesota

THE INVESTIGATING POWERS OF CONGRESS. Compiled by Julia E. Johnsen. Reference Shelf, Vol. 22, No. 6. New York: H. W. Wilson Company, 1951; pp. 281. $1.75.

The publicity attendant on the Kefauver Committee, the MacArthur hearings, and the continuing investigations of the Un-American Activities Committee point up the timeliness of this compilation. The difficult issues relating to fundamental civil rights are adequately discussed and impartially presented. Reprints of twenty-nine articles, together with numerous "excerpts," are carried under the headings: 1. General Discussion (history and analysis), 2. Some Investigations of the Past, 3. Some Recent Investigations, 4. Proposed Reforms. Many articles are drawn from political science and law journals. An extensive, thirty-page bibliography is included.

GORDON F. HOSTETTLER,
Temple University

FROM HOMER TO MENANDER: FORCES IN GREEK POETIC FICTION. By L. A. Post. Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1951; pp. 333. $3.75.

From Homer to Menander is a thoughtful and scholarly book that will be of special interest to teachers of drama, criticism, and the humanities. It deals in turn with the *Odyssey*, the *Iliad*, the tragedies of the Big Three, the comedy of Menander, and as a capstone, the *Poetics* of Aristotle. The author is well qualified for this task. He has not only taught Greek literature for thirty years but has directed and acted in the Greek plays. Thus he is able to lift them from the printed page and set them on the stage for us.

The text is fortified with fifty pages of footnotes which reveal an intensive and wide-ranging scholarship and are in themselves fascinating reading.

NORMAN C. STAGEBERG,
Iowa State Teachers College

PSYCHOLOGY AND ITS BEARING ON EDUCATION. By C. W. Valentine. New York: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1951; pp. xvi+671. $6.00.

Psychology and Its Bearing on Education differs from most texts in educational psychology in several ways. Dr. Valentine has comprehensively discussed every aspect of psychology which he believes has a bearing on education. Concrete illustrations are presented throughout. The language is clear and simple. Above all the author has treated mental hygiene with

emphasis on the personal hygiene of adults in relation to teaching. The long recognized need of one book to cover the full discipline of psychology and its bearing on education has been effectively realized.

REUBEN A. BAER,
Air University

THE EDUCATION OF MAN. By Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi. Introduction by William H. Kilpatrick. New York: Philosophical Library, 1951; pp. xii+93. $2.75.

This little book of aphorisms by the renowned Swiss educator of yesterday contains much to interest the speech educator of today. Like Jefferson, his American contemporary and intellectual kin, Pestalozzi centered his educational philosophy in the integrity of mind and spirit of the individual—of the common, ordinary individual everywhere. A natural development of this thesis was his understanding of the forces which direct human behavior. Note how frequently these observations are found in our introductory texts in Speech:

> "The best way to get people to speak up is to set their minds at rest." (p. 43)
>
> "Who says too much, says nothing." (p. 76)
>
> "Many words make an excuse anything but convincing." (p. 76)

The Education of Man is not a book to be read from cover to cover at a single sitting. Certainly a steady diet of aphoristic knowledge would surfeit the appetite and benumb the brain of even the hardiest. Proceed—but with caution.

MILDRED F. BERRY,
Rockford College

BOOKS RECEIVED

ANTIGONE OF SOPHOCLES. A dramatic translation by F. Kinchin Smith. New York: Oxford University Press, 1951; pp. 68. ("This translation is an attempt to present the play in a form immediately intelligible to the modern reader or theatre-goer with no knowledge of the original or the mythology behind it.")

CROFTS CLASSICS. General Editors: R. C. Bald, W. C. DeVane and Fred B. Millett. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1951; 35c each.

Arnold's *Selected Poems*. Edited by E. K. Brown.

Congreve's *The Way of the World*. Edited by Henry T. E. Perry.

Goldsmith's *She Stoops to Conquer*. Edited by Katharine C. Balderston.

Milton's *Areopagitica* and *Of Education*. Edited by George H. Sabine.

Shakespeare's *Sonnets*. Edited by Hyder E. Rollins.

LETTERS TO BENVENUTA. By Rainer Maria Rilke. New York: Philosophical Library, 1951; pp. 87. $2.75.

TEACHING SECONDARY ENGLISH. By John J. DeBoer, Walter V. Kaulfers and Helen Rand Miller. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1951; pp. xiii+427. $4.00. ("designed to acquaint prospective teachers with modern trends in the teaching of reading, literature, listening, speaking, and writing at the secondary level")

UNIVERSAL CONSCRIPTION FOR ESSENTIAL SERVICE. Edited by Herbert L. Marx, Jr. Reference Shelf, Vol. 23, No. 3. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1951; pp. 178. $1.75. (pros and cons on the debate proposition selected for high schools by the National University Extension Association)

PLAYS FOR GREAT OCCASIONS. By Graham DuBois. Boston, Mass: Plays, Inc., 1951; pp. 371. $3.50. ("contains twenty-four one-act, royalty-free dramas for celebrating holidays and important anniversaries")

READINGS IN BIOGRAPHY & EXPOSITION. Compiled by Roger Sherman Loomis and Donald Lemen Clark. (Sixth edition). New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1950; pp. xiv+554. $2.75.

TWO SIDES TO A TEACHER'S DESK. By Max S. Marshall. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1951; pp. vi+284. $3.00. ("looks at education from both the teacher's and the students' points of view, . . . discusses the place of dogma, science, art and freedom in education, . . . discusses such aids to teaching as the use of movies, slides, charts, true-false exams, completion exams, and other modern inventions.")

IN THE PERIODICALS

Laura Crowell, *Editor*

Inasmuch as the American regional and professional journals in the field doubtless come regularly to the attention of members of the profession, this department will limit its reference to periodicals not officially or directly concerned with speech. Readers are therefore referred to the current issues of American Speech, The Central States Speech Journal, The Southern Speech Journal, The Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders, Educational Theatre Journal, Speech Monographs, *and* Western Speech.

RHETORIC AND PUBLIC ADDRESS

LAURA CROWELL
University of Washington

BELL, DANIEL, "The Language of Labor," *Fortune*, XLIV (September 1951), 86-88, 202+.

Suggests reasons why labor shouts against business with radical accents in America but "defends free enterprise abroad with pride and skill."

BRIGANCE, W. NORWOOD, "'Security Is an Illusion'," *Vital Speeches*, XVII (July 15, 1951), 593-596.

A Commencement Address warning that we "must not destroy democracy in our struggle to defend democracy."

BURNETT, RUTH A., "Mark Twain in the Northwest, 1895," *The Pacific Northwest Quarterly*, XLII (July 1951), 187-202.

An interesting treatment of specific details of Twain's lecture tour, based on newspaper and interview sources.

CHERNISS, HAROLD, "The Characteristics and Effects of Presocratic Philosophy," *Journal of the History of Ideas*, XII (June 1951), 319-345.

A careful definition of salient characteristics of the formulae offered by the Presocratic philosophers, and a statement of the role of these thinkers in forging the instrument of the Socratic dialectic.

CORT, ROBERT P., "How to Get an Idea Across," *Personnel*, XXVIII (July 1951), 46-51.

Concrete suggestions for effective idea-communication for the supervisor or executive.

DAVIS, LEONARD M., and JAMES H. HENNING, "Nathan Goff—West Virginia Orator and Statesman," *West Virginia History*, XII (July 1951), 299-337.

An account "based upon newly discovered primary sources which should serve to clear up many biographical discrepancies and help to establish Goff as one of West Virginia's great orators and statesmen."

DONALD, DAVID, "Getting Right with Lincoln," *Harper's Magazine*, CCII (April 1951), 74-80.

The author of *Lincoln's Herndon* discusses the fervid claims made by different parties of Lincoln's sponsorship of their causes and their nominees, a condition possible because of his "noncommittal, pragmatic attitude."

DREXEL, CONSTANCE, "Unpublished Letters of F. D. R. to his French Governess," *Parents' Magazine*, XXVI (September 1951), 30-1, 80-84.

The story of Madame Rosat-Sandoz's association with the Roosevelt family as told by a foreign correspondent who discovered the aged governess at her native home in Switzerland.

GRAEBNER, NORMAN A., "Thomas Corwin and the Election of 1848: A Study in Conservative Politics," *The Journal of Southern History*, XVII (May 1951), 162-179.

An analysis of the eclipse of Corwin's popularity, which had been widespread at the time of his Mexican War Speech in 1847.

HAMILTON, WILLIAM B., "Churchill: Actor as Historian," *The South Atlantic Quarterly*, L (July 1951), 399-411.

An appraisal of Churchill's contributions to the history of his period.

MARTIN, BURNS, "Aristotle's Poetics," *The Dalhousie Review*, XXXI (Spring 1951), 33-42.

Pointing to this "first comprehensive attempt in Europe at literary criticism," Martin tries to lay clear the qualities of the *Poetics* which might indicate their value to the present-day reader.

MCCLOSKEY, ROBERT, "Free Speech, Sedition and the Constitution," *The American Political Science Review*, XLV (September 1951), 662-673.

Courts dealing with the freedom of speech issue must weigh with common sense "the intent, the imminence, and the seriousness of the peril . . . against the range, the motive and the occasion of the restraint."

RANDALL, CLARENCE B., "A Matter of Conviction," *The Atlantic*, CLXXXVIII (September 1951), 22-25.

A lucid and intelligent speech by the president of Inland Steel, declaring that the time has arrived for capitalism to go on the offensive to explain business "to every segment of the American public."

WHEELER, MARCUS, "Aristotle's Analysis of the Nature of Political Struggle," *American Journal of Philology*, LXXII (April 1951), 145-161.

A criticism of the analysis of στάσις in the *Politics*, holding that Aristotle "exaggerates the importance of exhaustiveness of treatment at the expense of lucidity."

WHYTE, H., JR., "The Wives of Management," *Fortune*, XLIV (October 1951), 86-88, 204+.

Seventh in the Communication series, this article argues that the wives of the coming generation of management seem to understand group-mindedness and are important in the flow of communications within business.

DISCUSSION AND DEBATE

WESLEY WIKSELL
Louisiana State University

AHERN, EILEEN, "Spotlight on an Unsolved Problem—Communication," *Personnel Journal*, XXIX (January 1951), 306-307.

A brief discussion of articles and books on the subject of communication in industry.

ALLEN, LOUIS A., "Getting Results from Conferences," *Personnel*, XXVII (January 1951), 276-281.

A step-by-step description of problem-solving for group decision on a course of action.

ANSBACHER, H. L., "The History of the Leaderless Group Discussion Technique," *Psychological Bulletin*, XLVIII (September 1951), 383-391.

An account of the research, origin, use, and implications of the leaderless discussion technique.

BALES, ROBERT F., FRED L. STRODTBECK, THEODORE M. MILLS, and MARY E. ROSEBOROUGH, "Channels of Communication in Small Groups," *American Sociological Review*, XVI (August 1951), 461-468.

Frequencies of communication between members participating in small face-to-face groups show certain striking regularities.

CARTER, LAUNOR, WILLIAM HAYTHORN, BEATRICE MEIROWITZ, and JOHN LANZETTA, "A Note on a New Technique of Interaction Recording," *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XLVI (April 1951), 258-260.

Describes categories for recording the interaction of subjects engaged in group behavior.

COOKE, MORRIS LLEWELLYN, "The Quaker Way Wins New Adherents," *The York Times Magazine*, Section 6 (June 17, 1951), 121-122.

This technique for working out differences is increasingly used in affairs of high policy.

DUCKREY, TANNER G., "Values in the Intercultural Workshop," *Sociology and Social Research*, XXXVI (September-October 1951), 14-18.

The intercultural workshop was designed to improve the quality of human relations among the various groups that make up our country.

ELLIS, FRANK, "How to Get More Out of Group Meetings," *The Kiwanis Magazine*, XXXVI (October 1951), 43-44.

Illustrations of effective and ineffective leadership followed by specific recommendations.

FREELEY, AUSTIN J., "Public Relations and Forensics," *Speech Activities*, VII (Summer 1951), 43-44.

Stresses the importance of an aggressive public relations program and gives suggestions.

GOODE, CECIL E., "Significant Research on Leadership," *Personnel*, XXVII (March 1951), 343-350.

An analysis of the published reports of research on leadership with major conclusions from some of the more significant researches.

GUNDERSON, ROBERT GRAY, "This Group-Dynamics Furor," *School and Society*, LXXIV (August 18, 1951), 97-100.

The author states that we should not abandon the painstaking requirements of laboratory science as applied to human relations for theoretical assumptions open to serious challenge.

GYR, JOHN, "Analysis of Committee Member Behavior in Four Cultures," *Human Relations*, IV, No. 2 (1951), 193-202.

A survey revealed that although many similarities appear in committee orientation from culture to culture, differences also exist.

JAMES, JOHN, "A Preliminary Study of the Size Determinant in Small Group Interaction," *American Sociological Review*, XVI (August 1951), 474-477.

Published sources and field observations revealed that groups tend to gravitate to the smallest size.

NICHOLS, EGBERT RAY, "Treatise on Need Debating," *Speech Activities*, VII (Summer 1951), 39-42.

Offers a definition of "need" debating, with advantages and disadvantages.

RILEY, MATILDA WHITE, and SAMUEL H. FLOWERMAN, "Group Relations as a Variable in Communications Research," *American Sociological Review*, XVI (April 1951), 174-180.

Preliminary evidence indicates that research might lead to a more rounded understanding of man's media influence and the interplay between social values and reference groups.

ROBINSON, J. FRANKLIN, "Therapeutic Values of Group Experience in a Children's Institution," *Mental Hygiene*, XXXV (July 1951), 439-447.

The use of the group setting within an institution described as a technical procedure in dealing with children.

RADIO AND TELEVISION

HALE AARNES
Stephens College

ARNOLD, THURMAN, "Mob Justice and Television," *Atlantic*, CLXXXVII (June 1951), 68-70.

Although the use of television brought the lesson of crime vividly to the American people, "such a spectacle in the future could completely invalidate the due process of law."

BENTON, WILLIAM, "Television With a Conscience," *The Saturday Review of Literature*, XXXIV (August 21, 1951), 7-8, 30-32.

The factors forcing television programming toward "trivialization" and the alternatives to stereotyped telecasting are pointed out.

COATMAN, JOHN, "The B.B.C., Government and Politics," *The Public Opinion Quarterly*, XV (Summer 1951), 287-298.

A description of the development of broadcasting policy in Great Britain especially regarding political and controversial issues, with the recommendation that the role of the Government in shaping this policy must remain dominant.

GAGLIARDI, GIO, "Theatre Television in Terms of Motion Picture Projection," *Motion Picture Herald*, Section 2 (October 13, 1951), 17-18, 20-21, 26.

An explanation of the three methods of projection which will probably be most widely used in theatre television.

GEIGER, THEODOR, "A Radio Test of Musical Taste," *The Public Opinion Quarterly*, XIV (Fall 1950), 453-460.

A Danish professor probes into the question whether people are not frightened away from classical music by the word *classical*.

KLOTS, ALLEN T., "Trial by Television," *Harper's*, CCIII (October 1951), 90-94.

Pointing to the telecasts of the Kefauver Committee investigations as evidence of the political power of the medium, Klots warns that such trials menace the rights of citizens.

SILVEY, ROBERT, "Methods of Viewer Research Employed by the BBC," *The Public Opinion Quarterly*, XV (Spring 1951), 89-104.

A description of the methods used in the past by the BBC to determine viewer preferences and reactions, and of the viewer panel now used in experimentation.

SMYTHE, DALLAS W., "An Analysis of Television Programs," *Scientific American*, CLXXXIV (June 1951), 15-17.

At this time of new allocations of frequencies by the Federal Communications Commission a team of educators seeks to ascertain how much of television may be thought educational.

"TV's Time of Trouble," *Fortune*, XLIV (August 1951), 75-79, 123+.

A listing of the problems confronting the television industry, and a significant analysis of the potential relationships between television and the motion picture industry.

VOORHIS, JERRY, "Listeners' Radio—Why Not?" *The Survey*, LXXXVII (June 1951), 259-261.

The story of WCFM, the consumers' cooperative radio station in Washington, D. C.

DRAMA AND INTERPRETATION

ALBERT E. JOHNSON
University of Texas

BARRINGTON, MAEVE, "Footlight Prodigy, Aged 10," *The Irish Digest*, XL (September 1951), 10-11.

As a child, Michael MacLiammoir so impressed Beerbohm Tree by his impassioned reading that Tree engaged him to play all the leading boys' roles in his productions.

DWORKIN, MARTIN S., "Miller and Ibsen," *The Humanist*, XI (June 1951), 111-115.

Dworkin reveals how Arthur Miller adapted Ibsen's *Enemy of the People*, how he somewhat altered its intentions, and what the play means to a modern audience.

GASSNER, JOHN, "Entropy in the Drama," *Theatre Arts*, XXXV (September 1951), 16-17, 73.

Creative energy "has been running downhill in the theatre, as it also has in nondramatic literature." Current dramatists lack a sense of confidence and direction in their work.

HOUSEMAN, JOHN, "The Critics in the Aisle Seats," *Harper's*, CCIII (October 1951), 58-66.

Houseman discusses the authority and influence of the Broadway critics, whose power by 1945, he believes, "had become absolute, irrevocable, and almost instant in its execution."

INGSTER, BORIS, "Serge Eisenstein," *Hollywood Quarterly*, V (Summer 1951), 380-388.

An illuminating review of Eisenstein's film career by one who worked with him in Russia. Ingster calls Eisenstein "one of the very few pure artists who ever lived."

KELLER, FRANKLIN J., "Nothing is Right Until It Is Beautiful," *Dance Observer*, XVIII (August-September 1951), 100-101.

In his description of the spirit of the Connecticut College School of the Dance, Keller's refrain is: "Artistic expression is the crown of life, and nothing is right until it is beautiful."

LAWLER, LILLIAN B., "The Dance in Metaphor," *The Classical Journal*, XLVI (May 1951), 383-391.

Through copious quotation, Lawler shows that the concept of dancing appears in the speech of all races of all times.

MACK, MAYNARD, "The Muse of Satire," *Yale Review*, XLI (Autumn 1951), 80-92.

Although concerned chiefly with rhetorical observations, illustrated by Pope's poetry, the essay deals briefly with tragedy, which, with satire, Mack considers "the two ends of a literary spectrum."

PARTRIDGE, ERIC, "Christopher Fry and his Poetry for the Theatre," *Tomorrow*, X (July 1951), 34-40.

Utilizing many quotations from Fry's work, the author discusses the English poet's impact on America, his philosophy of life, his musical loveliness, and his seriousness of purpose.

PEARSON, TALBOT, "Respect for Royalty," *Dramatics*, XXIII (October 1951), 9, 34.

A brief, informal history of play royalties and the copyright law, the article concludes with the advice: "Beware of bargains in play rentals. *It pays to buy the best.*"

PRISK, BERNEICE, "Where Do I Buy It?" *Players*, XXVIII (October 1951), 14.

A valuable selective list of companies from which costume supplies may be purchased.

WINTERS, YVOR, "The Audible Reading of Poetry," *The Hudson Review*, IV (Autumn 1951), 433-447.

To read properly we must understand precisely the principles of English rhythm and meter. "There will never be a first-rate poet or a first-rate critic who lacks a first-rate ear."

LANGUAGE AND PHONETICS

BERT EMSLEY
Ohio State University

BABCOCK, C. MERTON, "The Dynamics of Communication," *School and Society*, LXXIV (August 4, 1951), 69-70.

Stressing effectiveness rather than correctness, Babcock suggests that the many variables involved can be controlled through Kenneth Burke's master terms: Act, Scene, Agent, Agency, Purpose.

FRANKLYN, JULIAN, "Speech of the Big Cities," *Tomorrow*, X (July 1951), 11-18.

With miscellaneous ideas from Fowler, Partridge, Krapp, G. B. Shaw, and William Matthews, this British author proves informative and interesting on Cockney.

HARRIS, ZELLIG S., "Selected Writings of Edward Sapir," *Language*, XXVII (July-September 1951), 288-333.

In an extended review Harris reflects the growing tendency to recognize the importance of imagination in linguistics and of freedom from mechanistic restrictions when the scholar is a genius like Sapir.

HAUGEN, EINAR, "Directions in Modern Linguistics," *Language*, XXVII (July-September 1951), 211-222.

The President of the Linguistic Society of America, deploring the mutual neglect of each other's work by American and European scholars, calls for more agreement in technical terminology, especially in metalanguage.

MACMURRAY, JOHN, "The Analysis of Language," *The Philosophical Quarterly*, I (July 1951), 319-337.

A simple formula in readable style: "I say S to You about O," in which S is a statement, not a mere sentence; O is an object which both You and I understand, though we may disagree on the truth of the statement about it.

NEWMAN, STANLEY, "Selected Writings of Edward Sapir," *International Journal of American Linguistics*, XVII (July 1951), 180-186.

Writing descriptive studies in 1906-1915, expanding to general linguistics in 1916-1925, and ranging beyond the formal boundaries into psychological and esthetic studies thereafter, Sapir the artist remained also a scientist.

PIERIS, RALPH, "Speech and Society: A Sociological Approach to Language," *American Sociological Review*, XVI (August 1951), 499-505.

Speech reveals social mores and class structure, also social changes, rapid in the United States and slowed by tradition and language purism in England.

READ, ALLAN WALKER, "how useful is the word 'semantics'?" *trans formation*, I, No. 2 (1951), 78-82.

History of the term from Leon Chwistek (1922) to the present.

RUBENSTEIN, HERBERT, "The Recent Conflict in Soviet Linguistics," *Language*, XXVII (July-September 1951), 281-287.

N. Ja. Marr (1864-1934), now discredited, believed the Japhetic languages, mainly of the Caucasus and some Mediterranean countries, preceded the Semitic and Indo-European.

TWEDT, DIK WARREN, "A Table for Use with Flesch's Level of Abstraction Readability Formula," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXXV (June 1951), 157-159.

A table, similar to that of Farr and Jenkins for earlier Flesch formulas, based on percentage of "definite" words, and number of syllables per one hundred words.

VINOGRADOV, V., "Soviet Linguistics on a New Path," *The Current Digest of the Soviet Press*, III (August 4, 1951), 34-36.

The author, scoring American semantics as a manifestation of idealism, calls for allegiance to J. V. Stalin's "Marxism in Linguistics," (*Pravda*, June 20, 1950).

VUYSJE, D., "The Psycho-Linguistic Movement in Holland," *Philosophy of Science*, XVIII (July 1951), 262-268.

History of the two main periods of development of the Significs movement in Holland.

SPEECH SCIENCE

LORETTA WAGNER SMITH
Brooklyn College

ANDERSON, ATTELL B., and W. A. MUNSON, "Electrical Excitation of Nerves in the Skin at Audiofrequencies," *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America*, XXIII (March 1951), 155-159.

A report on results obtained in preliminary tests of perception of signals applied directly to the skin in the form of electrical potentials.

CARLISLE, R. W., and H. A. PEARSON, "A Strain-Gauge Type Artificial Mastoid," *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America*, XXIII (May 1951), 300-302.

The description of the construction (including measurements and standardization) of an artificial mastoid for testing bone conduction.

CURTIS, JAMES W., "Administration of the Purdue Pegboard Test to Blind Individuals," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, X (1950), 329-331.

The Purdue Pegboard Test with a few modifications was administered to seventy blind persons and tentative norms were set up.

DU MAS, FRANK M., "Evaluating Psychometric Proficiency," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, X (1950), 332-337.

Description of two tests (one with length of one minute, one of three or four minutes) for routine appraisal of the psychometric proficiency of a person administering individual tests.

GAUGER, ADELINE B., "Electrodiagnosis in Cerebral Palsy," *American Journal of Mental Deficiency*, LVI (July 1951), 145-151.

A study of eighty-eight female patients to evaluate the electroencephalogram and electromyogram as "diagnostic or prognostic aids in cerebral palsy."

KALLMAN, FRANZ J., "Twin Studies in Relation to Adjustive Problems in Man," *Transactions of the New York Academy of Sciences*, XIII (May 1951), 270-275.

A report on the 5108 twin index units under observation in New York State; expectancy of schizophrenia noted.

KENDLER, HOWARD H., "'What Is Learned?'—a Theoretical Blind Alley," *The Transactions of the New York Academy of Sciences*, XIII (December 1950), 73-77.

Urging learning theorists to "relate their theoretical concepts to observables and unhesi-

tatingly test the explanatory capacity of their formulations."

LEESON, LAVELL H., "Hearing Defects in Children," *Canadian Medical Association Journal*, LII (1950), 167-169.

Pointing out that 75 per cent of the cases of deafness in children can be traced to childhood diseases, Leeson emphasizes the importance of early medical attention and early training.

POHLMAN, MAX EDWARD, "The Artificial Ear Drum," *The Annals of Otology, Rhinology and Laryngology*, LX (March 1951), 117-121.

An explanation of the manner of introducing into the ear canal and removing from it an artificial ear drum, a substitute in chronic otitis media for patients not able to accept a diaphragm rod prosthesis.

SEARS, ROBERT R., "A Theoretical Framework for Personality and Social Behavior," *The American Psychologist*, VI (September 1951), 476-486.

The president of the American Psychological Association lists the essential properties of the theory required by the "most promising directions now discernible in the study of social behavior and personality."

SMITH, CALDWELL P., "A Phoneme Detector," *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America*, XXIII (July 1951), 446-451.

"A speech analyzer is described which measures the degree of fit between the energy distribution of any speech signal and a set of 'standard' energy patterns stored in the machine."

SOLOMON, RICHARD L., and H. HOWES DAVIS, "Word Frequency, Personal Values, and Visual Thresholds," *Psychological Review*, LXIII (July 1951), 256-270.

In word perception, tested by visual duration threshold, or the Tachistoscopic exposure time required by the subject to recognize an exposed word, an important variable is word frequency, in particular that of the Thorndike-Lorge count.

TARNOCZY, T. H., "The Opening Time and Opening-Quotient of the Vocal Cords during Phonation," *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America*, XXIII (January 1951), 42-44.

A study of the peculiarities of vibration of the vocal cords in the formation of speech sounds and the sounds in singing; the results, although incomplete, suggest increase of opening quotient with rising intensity.

WHEELER, DOUGLAS, "Physical and Physiological Variables in Noise-Induced Hearing Loss," *Archives of Otolaryngology*, LIV (September 1951), 267-272.

A study of shipyard employees built as one of a series "tending to establish a systematic and quantified body of knowledge about noise-induced hearing loss."

YOUNG, ROBERT W., "Review of Acoustical Patents," *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America*, XXIII (March 1951), 248-260.

A valuable review of acoustical patents issued by the United States Patent Office, including a brief description of each patent and small diagrams of many of them.

PSYCHOLOGY AND PATHOLOGY OF SPEECH

DOROTHY SHERMAN
State University of Iowa

HUDGINS, CLARENCE V., "Speech Comprehension in Deaf Children," *The Nervous Child*, IX (January 1951), 57-63.

A complex process in which a wide variety of sensory cues is employed. A combination of lip-reading and properly amplified auditory cues yields an efficiency in speech perception unpredictable from that of either method alone.

LEJEUNE, FRANCIS E., "The Surgical Treatment of Early Carcinoma of the Larynx," *The Laryngoscope*, LXI (June 1951), 488-495.

Intrinsic cancer of the vocal cords, if seen sufficiently early, will respond successfully to either the intralaryngeal or laryngofissure operation, with ninety-three and eighty-five per cent cures, respectively, and preservation of vocal function, although damaged.

NATHANS, ZITA, "Use of Toys in the Treatment of Cerebral Palsied Children," *The Crippled Child*, XXIX (June 1951), 28-29.

Description of the work done at Lenox Hill Hospital, New York City.

WESTLAKE, HAROLD, "A System for Developing Speech," *The Crippled Child*, XXIX (June 1951), 10-11.

The proposed system for speech training has three phases: (1) psychological and social readiness for speech; (2) physiological readiness for speech; and (3) direct training for speech.

YENRICK, D. D., "Speechreading Materials for the Primary Public School Grades," *The Volta Review*, LIII (June 1951), 249-251.

Suggestions to the teacher of speechreading for utilizing opportunities of the regular classroom.

EQUIPMENT

WILLIAM J. TEMPLE, *Editor*

MORE ABOUT MAGNETIC SOUND ON FILM

A sample strip of 16mm magnetic soundfilm coated by the "Magnastripe" process of the Reeves Soundcraft Corporation shows the recording stripe of magnetic material about a tenth of an inch wide located in the usual soundtrack position but on the shiny, base side of the film (the side not coated with photographic emulsion). To compensate for the additional thickness of this stripe (which would prevent the film from winding flat on the reel), a much narrower stripe is placed outside the perforations at the other edge of the film.

The manufacturer of this patented product points out that the sound quality obtainable from it is superior in every way to that of any type of photographic soundtrack, and also that "adequate" quality can be had from the narrower stripe which can be placed on the amateur type of 16mm film having perforations at both edges. My warnings of last year about the quality to be expected from 8mm or 16mm films projected at "silent" speed still hold.

A "Magnastripe" plant is already in operation in Connecticut. The process can be applied to clear leader (film with no photosensitive emulsion), already developed films, or photosensitive raw stock (unexposed film). At present the service can be ordered from Reeves Soundcraft Corporation, 10 East 52nd Street, New York 22, N. Y., and Ryder 16mm Services, 1161 North Vine Street, Hollywood 38, Calif. Technical information and directions for ordering can be obtained from these companies.

Eventually, this coating service will be available also through the distribution channels of the projector manufacturers, among whom Ampro, RCA, and Victor seem to be the most active. We mentioned the RCA projector in the last issue. We hear that Victor is bringing out a converter which will bring your present Victor projector up-to-date for magnetic recording and reproduction.

DARTMOUTH RECORDING PROJECT—VOLUMES I AND II. *Produced and distributed on a non-profit basis by the Dartmouth Recording Project, Albert T. Martin, Director, Department of Speech, Dartmouth College, Hanover, New Hampshire. Two 12" long playing disks, 4 sides; with mimeographed text, $3.85 each by subscription.*

This praiseworthy enterprise presents readings of prose and poetry by twenty of our colleagues from among those recorded on tape at the 1950 SAA convention in New York City. This list includes some of the best-known teachers and practitioners of oral interpretation in our membership. The records should find ready acceptance for classroom demonstration and library reference as well as for the pleasure of present and former students and friends of the readers, or indeed for anyone who enjoys hearing good literature read aloud.

The readings are not all of equal merit. I trust that no one will be offended if I say that even among these talented and experienced readers some sound to me (perhaps because of the circumstances in which the recording was done) as if they were afraid someone might be listening. Others read with such warmth and inspiration that participation as listener is a pleasure.

Many of the performances are suitable for use in classes as examples of excellent reading. For advanced students abundant material is offered to provoke and illustrate discussions of voice, style, dialect, and other technical problems in oral interpretation. Owning both disks makes possible a comparison of three different readings of "My Last Duchess."

Such technical handicaps as the acoustics of makeshift studios, inadequate rehearsal time, and varying microphone techniques have been dealt with successfully but not entirely overcome on these records, as the critical ear will notice, especially in comparison with a professional product like Columbia's *Pleasure Dome*.

This notice would be incomplete without the names of the readers. Volume I presents Robert Breen, Northwestern University; Sara Lowrey, Furman University; Earl Fleischman, City College of New York; Mary Thompson, Carroll College; Ramon Irwin, Syracuse University; Earl Wynn, University of North Carolina; Frank Rarig, University of Missouri; Wayland Parrish, University of Illinois; Charlotte Lee, Northwestern University; and Daniel Vandraegen, University of California at Los Angeles.

Volume II includes Carl England, Dartmouth College; W. Norwood Brigance, Wabash College; Armand Hunter, Temple University; William

B. McCoard, University of Southern California; Wallace A. Bacon, Northwestern University; Joseph F. Smith, University of Hawaii; Dorothy Kaucher, State College of San Jose, California; Frank C. Baxter, University of Southern California; Albert Martin, Dartmouth College; and Claribel Baird, University of Michigan.

The Dartmouth Recording Project has a backlog of tapes. I hope those responsible will be able to add to it, and to issue more records in this series.

THE LONDON LIBRARY OF RECORDED ENGLISH. *American and Canadian representatives: Britam Agencies, Inc., 245 Fifth Ave., New York 16, N. Y. Four albums of six 12" 78 rpm records each. $21 per album; $75 for the set; postage prepaid; 10 per cent Federal excise tax additional (remember that some institutions are exempt from this tax.)*

Because of the price of these records, the Britam Agencies were not able to send a set to the *QJS* for review, but they did send a representative with a demonstration set to my apartment for an evening; hence I can speak about them from first hand acquaintance. They are probably the best recordings of poetry I have ever heard.

Many of us have been disappointed again and again by poetry on records. Records by the poets themselves are always interesting, but rare indeed is the poet who reads well. Records by well-known actors or "personalities" (the Norman Corwins and the Orson Welleses) often carry such a strong imprint of distinctive voice or personality that the poetry is obscured. Some records by good readers are so poor technically that the words are almost (and sometimes quite) unintelligible, and some good readers address the microphone as if from the public platform.

The records from this set are singularly free from all these faults. The late James Stephens reads his own work with charm and gusto. The voices and accents of the readers are not obtrusive. The recording is technically excellent, and the records are pressed on "unbreakable" plastic material with low surface noise.

The microphone is used intelligently. For lyric poetry, as for chamber music, a close pick-up gives fitting intimacy and directness to the communication. These readers do not abuse the technique like some broadcasters of sentimental verse who seem to climb uninvited into the listener's lap to murmur in his ear. Neither are these readings like public performances before large audiences. They are like the warm, natural, direct sharing of pleasure among a few friends completely at ease with one another.

The twenty-four records in this set are only part of the projected anthology which is to contain sixty disks when it is complete. Suggestions to the editors regarding the selections to be included can still be made. I myself could wish they were LP's instead of 78's.

Three good reasons for buying these records are obvious. The poems are well chosen, beautifully spoken, and excellently recorded. The project deserves our support. And since this is a limited edition, the records will not be available indefinitely.

HARRY MORGAN AYRES *reading selections from Beowulf, Chaucer, and Shakespeare, with comments on the pronunciation, and Lincoln's Gettysburg Address in the styles of 1863 and today. The National Council of Teachers of English, 211 W. 68th St., Chicago 21, Ill. Four 10" 78 rpm disks, 8 sides.*

These records make available to all of us and our students a little of the scholarship and personal charm which students of the late Professor Ayres remember. I can think of no surer way to arouse students' curiosity about the phonetic history of the English language and the methods of scholarship in this field than to play these four records in the classroom.

Professor Ayres's own attitude was that this sort of study should be pursued "as an aid to literary satisfaction and not as a substitute for it," and he reads with obvious zest for the literary values as well as with care for the accurate pronunciation of the sounds as scholars believe they were heard in the authors' times.

Through the kindness of Dr. George W. Hibbitt of Columbia, one of the editors of this series of records, I was able to make a direct comparison of the Ayres records of Beowulf and Chaucer with the records of similar selections spoken by Professor H. C. Wyld. I have no hesitation in ranking the Ayres records first, both for their superior clarity of reproduction and for Ayres's livelier style of reading.

A few comments of a different kind: My copy of the Chaucer disk has its labels reversed, and the labels on the Shakespeare record indicate that part of the content of one side is on the other. The paper envelopes are too flimsy to survive even careful handling. Only the Beowulf record is accompanied by a printed copy of the text of the material.

Conventions and Conferences

T. EARLE JOHNSON, *Editor*

CONVENTION CALENDAR

SPEECH ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA:

1951. Chicago, December 27-29, at the Stevens Hotel. Program Chairman: Lionel Crocker, Denison University.

1952. Cincinnati, December 29-31, at the Netherland-Plaza Hotel.

1953. New York City, during the week of December 26, at the Hotel Statler.

1954. Chicago, during the week of December 26, at the Stevens Hotel.

AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL THEATRE ASSOCIATION:

1951. Chicago, December 27-29, at the Stevens Hotel. Program Chairman: William P. Halstead, University of Michigan.

1952. Cincinnati, December 29-31, at the Netherland-Plaza Hotel.

AMERICAN SPEECH AND HEARING ASSOCIATION:

1951. Chicago, December 27-29, at the Stevens Hotel. Program Chairman: Harlan Bloomer, University of Michigan.

CENTRAL STATES SPEECH ASSOCIATION:

1952. Tulsa, Oklahoma, April 18-19, at the Hotel Mayo. Program Chairman: John W. Keltner, University of Oklahoma.

NEW ENGLAND SPEECH ASSOCIATION:

1952. Convention is scheduled for Thanksgiving week, time and place to be announced.

PACIFIC SPEECH ASSOCIATION:

1952. Wailuku, Maui, April 5. Program Chairman: Joseph F. Smith, University of Hawaii.

SOUTHERN SPEECH ASSOCIATION:

1952. Jackson, Mississippi, April 4-6, at the Hotel Heidelberg. Program Chairman: Betty May Collins, Technical High School, Memphis, Tennessee.

1953. First week in April at place to be selected. Program Chairman: Batsell B. Baxter, David Lipscomb College, Nashville, Tennessee.

SPEECH ASSOCIATION OF THE EASTERN STATES:

1952. New York City, April 17-19, at the Hotel New Yorker.

WESTERN SPEECH ASSOCIATION:

1952. Convention is scheduled for Thanksgiving week, time and place to be announced.

THE CHICAGO CONVENTIONS
December 27-28-29, 1951

The joint convention of the Speech Association of America, the American Educational Theatre Association, the American Speech and Hearing Association, and other related special groups will be held in the Stevens Hotel, Chicago. Each of the principal associations has prepared extensive programs which should prove most attractive for its own members; all have combined in joint programs which should be of interest to all.

SPEECH ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA

The thirty-sixth annual convention of the Speech Association of America promises to be outstanding. The program planned by First Vice-President Lionel Crocker looks most attractive. It should appeal to all speech teachers from the neophyte to the seasoned convention-goer.

Paul Carmack is the General Chairman of Physical Arrangements; Paul Moore is Chairman of all Committees.

The Executive Council, with President Wilbur Gilman in the chair, will meet on Wednesday morning and evening; the committees of SAA will meet Wednesday afternoon. The National Society for the Study of Communication and the National Discussion Foundation will meet on Wednesday.

A pleasant feature will be two teas, one on Thursday afternoon for the primary and secondary teachers with Mary Williams in charge, and one on Friday afternoon for visiting wives with Mrs. F. Lincoln D. Holmes in charge.

A number of universities will hold alumni luncheons on Thursday noon. The association luncheon on Friday will be presided over by Evelyn Konigsberg, second vice-president. The presidents of the three associations, Wilbur

Gilman of SAA, Mack Steer of ASHA, and Lee Mitchell of AETA will make brief addresses; Herold Hunt, Superintendent of Schools of Chicago, and formerly teacher of public speaking, will be the guest speaker.

Forest Whan has arranged several sections in radio and television. A feature of his program will be a visit to the NBC studios with Judith Waller in charge. The group will view a rehearsal of a Wayne King Show, the question period of NBC personnel, and broadcasts of Clint Youle, weather man, Dorsey Connors Gadget Show, Clifton Utley's News Commentary, and the Musical Reminiscence Show.

Under the inspiration of Douglas Ehninger SAA will try some evening seminars in four areas of interest: one in rhetoric under Kenneth G. Hance, one in American oratory under W. Norwood Brigance, one in interpretation under William B. McCoard, and one in experimental studies in rhetoric and communication under Howard Gilkinson.

Each morning a general session will be sponsored jointly by SAA and each of the other organizations. For the opening session on Thursday, Marie Hochmuth has obtained Alexander Drummond, Bryng Bryngelson, and James M. O'Neill to discuss the interdependence of the three associations in solving speech problems. For Friday John Black has arranged a joint ASHA and SAA general session to emphasize speech in military applications. On Saturday morning William Halstead will conduct a general session on appreciation of mass media in communication.

With the assistance of Hayden Carruth, Darrel Mase, Sara Lowrey, and Karl Robinson, H. P. Constans, the nominee for first vice-president, will undertake critiques of the convention programs.

In cooperation with Magdalene Kramer, Evelyn Konigsberg has set up excellent sessions in primary and secondary school speech. These include Speech in the Secondary School, with Karl Robinson as chairman; Speech in the Elementary School, with Carrie Rasmussen as chairman; and Radio in the Public Schools, with Marguerite Fleming as chairman. Wanda B. Mitchell, Herold Lillywhite, and Susie S. Niles have interesting sections in this area.

Discussion and debate, rhetoric and public speaking, British and American oratory, oral interpretation, communication, pedagogy, graduate study, research methods, and other aspects of speech are covered in the program.

HIGHLIGHTS OF THE AMERICAN SPEECH AND HEARING ASSOCIATION CONVENTION PROGRAM

The twenty-seventh annual conference of the American Speech and Hearing Association will convene December 27, 1951, in conjunction with the other associations at the Stevens Hotel in Chicago. Registration will commence the 26th.

The Program Committee has selected topics of general interest and has arranged for a number of prominent administrators, research workers, and clinicians from our own and related professions to present papers. Among the general topics to be discussed are: What I Do for the Stutterer in the Public Schools and What I Would Like to Do, Clinical Audiology, Crucial Problems in the Administration of Public School Speech Correction Programs, Research in Speech Pathology, Speech and Language for the Deaf, Therapy for Voice Disorders, Voice Communication in Military Applications, Speech Pathologies of Neurological Origin, The Training of Speech Correctionists, Panel on Information Theory, Structural Abnormalities Affecting Speech, Speech Development in the Infant and Young Child, Experimental Phonetics, Research in Audiology, Implications of Current Research for Public School Speech Correction, and Personality Development and Speech Pathology.

In addition to the section meetings planned for the above-mentioned topics, a number of special features will interest the convention attendants. An outstanding example is the general session devoted to voice communication in military applications. The participants in this program are outstanding men intimately associated with research developments and their applications to problems of military speech communications.

The film theatre will present repeated showings of movie films of current interest to professional workers. Three discussion groups planned for the last afternoon of the convention will provide an opportunity for persons interested in audiology, speech science, and speech pathology to attend sessions of discussion led by prominent persons associated with those areas.

The Committee on Local Arrangements, in cooperation with the National Society for Crippled Children and Adults, Inc., and the Chicago Speech Correction Association, has planned a number of entertainment features. More than 125 contributors to the convention program are working to make the conference profitable.

AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL THEATRE ASSOCIATION

Guided by the able chairmanship of William Halstead, University of Michigan, the American Educational Theatre Association has designed a convention program to meet the needs of the delegates from the American theatre and its allied fields of radio, cinema, and television.

The AETA program is distinguished by outstanding figures in American Educational Theatre who bring to the conference papers dealing with the international as well as the national theatre scene. Prominent in the session entitled *International Theatre Scene*, will be Willis Knapp Jones, Miami University, "Footlights and Mantillas"; Betty McGee Vetter, University of California, "The Re-Development of Native Drama in Post-War Japan"; Hubert C. Heffner, Stanford University, "Theatre in Contemporary France and England"; Henry Schnitzler, University of California, "AETA Liaison and ITI Project"; and B. Iden Payne, University of Texas, "Training for Theatre Work in England and America."

Monroe Lippman, Tulane University, will serve as chairman of the General Session, *The American Theatre Scene*. The program will include Carolin Witherspoon, V.A., Washington, D. C., "The AETA: Veterans Administration Program"; Sawyer Falk, Syracuse University, "AETA-National Theatre Conference Cooperative Program"; N. Bryllion Fagin, Johns Hopkins University, "The University Theatre and the Community"; Robert Breen, Board of Directors, American National Theatre and Academy, "ANTA Reorganization"; and Lee Mitchell, Northwestern University, AETA Presidential Address: "The Ideal Audience."

This AETA Convention has been devised to meet the needs of theatre, radio, cinema, and television production and study. Illustrative of the papers to be presented are Robert Gassner, New York University, "Teaching a Critical Appreciation of Motion Pictures"; Alice Gerstenberg, playwright, "The Community Theatre and the Playwright"; Samuel Selden, University of North Carolina, "The Designing of Minimum Scenery"; Kenneth Macgowan, University of California, "Can the Creative Student be Taught to Analyze?"; E. J. West, University of Colorado, "George Bernard Shaw as a Dramatic Critic"; Barnard Hewitt, University of Illinois, "Pure Repertory: The Park Theatre: 1809-1810"; Fairfax Proudfit Walkup, University of Arizona, "Customs and Manners: Costume"; Eric Bentley, author, "The Neglected Europeans"; and Donald Fedderson, Northwestern University, "College Training in Television."

In addition to the regular sessions, symposia and demonstrations are scheduled. Of particular interest to secondary school teachers is the symposium, "How We Staged Them," under the chairmanship of Ottis Swiger, Shorewood (Wisconsin) High School. Campton Bell, University of Denver, will preside over a panel discussion, "Teaching the Appreciation of Mass Media," a program featuring Judith Waller, of the Educational Division of the National Broadcasting Company, Chicago. The Goodman Memorial Theatre, School of the Drama, will present Ibsen's *The Master Builder*. Demonstrations of creative dramatics and high school acting will be given. For those interested in audio-visual aids, continuous showings of films and film strips are planned. Delegates are invited to attend specialized project and committee meetings of particular interest to the members.

NUEA COMMITTEE

The Committee on Debate Materials and Interstate Cooperation will hold an especially important series of meetings in conjunction with the convention of the Speech Association of America at the Stevens Hotel on December 27 and 28. For the past year a special committee has been studying the practices of the Committee on Debate Materials with a view to reporting on recommendations made at the last meeting in New York on December 28, 1950. This special committee will report to a closed session in Private Dining Room 4 of the Stevens Hotel at nine o'clock on Thursday morning, December 27. Advance information indicates that some thirty-five or more state debate leagues will be represented. Following the meeting of the representatives of the state debate leagues the Committee on Debate Materials and Interstate Cooperation will go into executive session to consider future policies.

The Committee on Debate Materials will also conduct its usual conferences to select a debate proposition for the nation's high schools.

In a joint sectional meeting with the Speech Association of America at 4:00 p.m. on Friday, December 28, Lowell B. Fisher, Professor of Education, The University of Illinois, and Chairman of the Curriculum Committee of the North Central Association, will sponsor a colloquy on the question, What kind of forensic program should be maintained by a good, modern high school? In a joint general session with SAA at 8:00 p.m. on Friday evening, December

28, President L. H. Adolfson of the National University Extension Association will preside at a debate and open forum on the proposition RESOLVED: *That all American citizens should be subject to conscription for essential service in time of war.* The affirmative will be maintained by Wayne C. Eubank of the University of New Mexico and Earl E. Bradley of the University of Denver. The negative will be defended by Boris Shishkin of the American Federation of Labor and Stanley H. Ruttenberg of the Congress of Industrial Organizations.

NATIONAL DISCUSSION FOUNDATION

The National Discussion Foundation has planned a Round Table to be held at the Stevens Hotel in Chicago on December 26. A special corps of recorders and reporters is being trained to record the discussions.

Advance registration for the Round Table includes: Hale Aarnes, Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri; Elton Abernathy, Southwest Texas State College, San Marcos, Texas; A. Craig Baird, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa; Dean C. Barnlund, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio; E. E. Bradley, University of Denver, Denver, Colorado; Earnest Brandenberg, Air University, Maxwell Air Force Base, Alabama; Glenn R. Capp, Baylor University, Waco, Texas; Eugene C. Chenoweth, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana; Laura Crowell, University of Washington, Seattle 5, Washington; Leslie E. Davis, Sioux Falls College, Sioux Falls, S. Dakota; Francis E. Drake, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota; C. W. Edney, Florida State University, Tallahassee, Florida; Douglas Ehninger, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida; Thorrel B. Fest, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado; Wallace C. Fotheringham, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio; N. L. Gage, University of Illinois, Champaign, Illinois; J. V. Garland, Albion College, Albion, Michigan; Kim Giffin, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas; Cyril Hager, Air University, Maxwell Air Force Base, Alabama; J. H. Henning, West Virginia University, Morgantown, West Virginia; Robert C. Kennedy, Junior Town Meeting League, Park Forest, Illinois; William Sattler, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan; Harry P. Shelley, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois; Robert E. Stockhouse, Air University, Maxwell Air Force Base, Alabama; Herb Thelen, University of Chicago, Chicago 37, Illinois; Otis M. Walter, University of Houston, Cullen Boulevard, Houston 4, Texas; Carl Wilson, Penn State College, State College, Pennsylvania; Leone M. Westover, 2080 South Josephine Street, Denver 10, Colorado; Wendell W. Williams, Earlham College, Richmond, Indiana; Henry L. Ewbank, University of Wisconsin, Madison 6, Wisconsin; Harold P. Zelko, Penn State College, State College, Pa.

CONVENTION PLANS FOR REGIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

SOUTHERN SPEECH ASSOCIATION

The Southern Speech Association will hold its twenty-second annual convention at the Heidelberg Hotel in Jackson, Mississippi, on April 4, 5, and 6, 1952. Program plans now being developed emphasize the influence of speech and speech teaching upon society.

Some important changes will mark the sectional and workshop sessions. In response to an expressed need, the number of sectional meetings on speech correction will be expanded from one to three. These programs will deal with research in speech pathology, problems in hearing, and problems in speech clinic procedures in universities and elementary schools.

The interpretation section calls for a study of the contribution of interpretation to the speech field, to study outside of speech, and to the individual student. Trends in the teaching of interpretation will also be presented.

The newly-organized committee on forensics will have charge of the program in that area and will conduct the first forensics workshop to be sponsored by the Southern Speech Association.

The pre-convention tournament, under the direction of the Third Vice-President, will be held on Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday of convention week, with Belhaven College and Millsaps College serving as hosts.

PACIFIC SPEECH ASSOCIATION

Honolulu speech teachers will literally "take to the air" to attend the 1952 Pacific Speech Association Convention, to be held in Wailuku, Maui, Saturday, April 5.

On Friday, April 4, the PSA will hold its Annual Speech Festival on the University of Hawaii Campus. Approximately a thousand high school youngsters will participate in the speech activities included in the program.

Early Saturday morning, university and high school teachers will fly to Maui for an all-day meeting of the Pacific Speech Association. Many will remain in Wailuku for the sessions of the Hawaii Educational Association which begin on Monday, April 7.

NEWS AND NOTES

JANET BOLTON, *Editor*

IN CONCLAVE

DELAWARE DRAMATIC CONFERENCE. On November 2 the University of Delaware sponsored its Twelfth Annual Dramatic Conference. The one-day meeting provided a lecture-demonstration of stage lighting featuring the University Theatre's prized new Izenour switchboard, an address by Dina Rees Evans, Director of Drama, Cleveland Heights High School, and Director of the Cain Park Municipal Theatre, on "The Drama in School and Community," a discussion-demonstration of central staging for high school use by Phyllis Shaw of Conrad High School, reports by C. R. Kase on the ANTA reorganization, the AETA Hospital Theatre project, and the Delaware Folk Drama project. Pertinent exhibits and motion pictures and an evening performance of *Life with Father* by the University E52 Players concluded the session.

IN THE CURRICULUM

AIR FORCE SPEECH TRAINING 1951. Air Force officers and enlisted men at Eglin and Tyndall Air Bases in Florida and at Turner Air Base in Georgia are receiving training in speech as a part of the Florida State University educational project, "Operation Bootstrap." Each week, instructors travel to these bases in the kind of extension program which seems to characterize the post-World War II period.

PANEL DISCUSSION FOR HISTORY COURSE. In cooperation with the Stanford University Department of History, a series of student panel discussions have been prepared on questions developing out of the freshman course, *History of Western Civilization*. The panels are sponsored by the Department of Speech and are under the supervision of Joseph Wagner, assistant in debate.

THERAPY FOR APHASICS. The Speech-Theatre Department of Long Island University is offering this year a new course in Therapy for Aphasia and Related Disturbances. Eleanor Semel, Director of Speech Therapy at St. Vincent's Hospital, New York City, conducts lectures at the University and supervises clinical work in aphasia at the hospital clinic.

MICHIGAN STATE TELEVISION SEQUENCE. A full two-year television curriculum is being launched at Michigan State College this year, with approximately sixty students enrolled at the senior and graduate levels. The college recently announced the opening of its new studios which include facilities for research, technical training, and educational services. One added emphasis in the sequence is the production of moving pictures for TV utilization.

APPOINTMENTS AND PROMOTIONS

SYRACUSE SCHOOL OF SPEECH DEANSHIP. Robert F. Oxnam, Acting Director since February, 1950, has been appointed Dean of the School of Speech and Dramatic Art at Syracuse University. Dean Oxnam succeeds Professor Harry J. Heltman, who retired after serving as Director since 1940. Dean Oxnam is a graduate of De Pauw University, where he majored in History and Political Science. His graduate degrees of Master of Arts in Political Science, Master of Science in Public Administration, and a Doctorate of Philosophy were granted by the University of Southern California. During World War II Dean Oxnam was Captain of a Cannon Company and Regimental Intelligence Officer in France, Holland, Belgium, Luxembourg, and Germany. Prior to his coming to Syracuse University, he served as Assistant Director of the Radio Bureau, University of Arizona and as Assistant Director of Public Relations and Coordination, University of Southern California. At present, Dean Oxnam is Assistant to the Chancellor of the University, Assistant Dean of the Liberal Arts College, and Assistant Professor of Political Science.

APPOINTMENTS:

University of Colorado: Edward C. Fitzpatrick, Technical Director of the Theatre.

Cornell University: Winifred B. Brandfon, Instructor in Speech Correction; E. R. Hansen and H. V. Gould, Instructors in Dramatic Production.

Florida State University: Francis A. Cartier,

Assistant Professor of Speech; Frank Hanson, Assistant Professor of Drama; Wyn Park, Instructor in Drama and Technological Director of the Theatre; Douglas Russell, Inspector in Drama and Costumer for the Theatre.

University of Indiana: Charles F. Caton, Assistant Professor of Speech; Fred J. Parrott, Assistant Professor of Speech; William Hatch, Instructor in Drama and Assistant Technical Director of the Theatre; William Kinzer, Instructor in Speech.

Long Island University: Joel Stark, Charles Jones, Jack Tureen.

State University of New York, Brockport Teachers College: Charles R. Schiefer, Instructor in Speech Correction.

Purdue University: Wayne Thurman (formerly Assistant Professor of Speech and Director of the Speech Clinic, Southeast Missouri State College), research fellowship; William R. Leith, fellowship; David Green and Arthur I. Weiss, Assistants, Voice Science Laboratory and Navy Research Staff, John W. Crawford, Dorothy Funk, Esther Jacobsen, Gloria Loebenson, Rita Ronen, Robert Gelb, Clinical Assistants in the Speech and Hearing Clinic.

Queens College: Edward W. Borgers, Paul D. Holtzman, Dorothy E. Rambo, Marie Catapano, Jerrold Sandler.

Stanford University: Lyman Barret, Clinical Assistant; Milton Valentine, Acting Instructor and Assistant Supervisor; Robert Cameron, Robert Kest, Joseph Wagner, Acting Instructors of Speech; Rex Gunn, Donald Graham, Merrill Hansen, Lenore Rosenfeld, Cornelius Sabin, Teaching Assistants; Oscar Brockett, Artist-in-Residence and Assistant in Theatre; Lenyth Spencer Brockett, Acting Instructor in Costuming.

State College of Washington: Theodore S. DeLay, Jr., Acting Assistant Professor of Speech, and Director of News and Special Events for Station KWSC.

PROMOTIONS:

Grace Newell Meeker, Associate Professor of Speech, State College of Washington.

Wayne Thompson, Associate Professor of Speech, University of Illinois, Navy Pier, Chicago.

Richard A. Moody, Associate Professor of Speech, Indiana University.

Leo D. Doerfler, Associate Professor of Audiology, University of Pittsburgh.

Charlotte Avery, Associate Professor of Audiology, University of Pittsburgh.

James Gordon Emerson, Professor of Speech, Stanford University.

Hayes A. Newby, Associate Professor of Speech, Stanford University.

Stanley Donner, Associate Professor of Speech, Stanford University.

Wendell Cole, Assistant Professor of Speech, Stanford University.

ON THE STAGES

BLEVINS DAVIS PRIZE PLAY AT YALE. "The Bridge and the Bumblebee," by Joe A. Greenhoe, a second year playwriting student in the Yale University Department of Drama, was the first major production of the season at the University Theatre. The play shared the Blevins Davis award (five hundred dollars for the best full-length play by a student in the department) with Dorothy Bland's "Beethoven," which will be performed at a later date.

THEATRE SCHEDULES:

University of Arkansas: Jeffers' *Medea, You Can't Take It With You, The Innocents, It's Surprisin'* (new operetta by Norman and Luise DeMarco), *The Merry Wives of Windsor, Summer and Smoke.*

University of Florida: *An Evening with Christopher Fry, Years Ago,* Florida High School One-Act Play Festival, *The Marriage Proposal* (TV-Theatre presentation), *Come Back Little Sheba, Lady Windermere's Fan* (TV-Theatre presentation.)

Florida State University: *You Can't Take It With You, A Phoenix Too Frequent, All Our Sons.*

Indiana University: *Voice of the Turtle, Good-bye, My Fancy, The Silver Whistle, The Madwoman of Chaillot, Jordon River Revue* (an original script).

Lafayette College: *Hay Fever, The Animal Kingdom, The Little Foxes, The Play's the Thing, The Browning Version,* and an original one-act play.

Long Island University: *Children of Darkness, The School for Wives* (new adaptation).

Lycoming College: *Pygmalion.*

San Jose State College: *Othello, The Swan, What Every Woman Knows,* Armand Salacrou's *Nights of Wrath, There's Always Juliet, Lady in the Dark.*

Santa Barbara College: *Winterset, Tonight at 8:30, The Madwoman of Chaillot, The Taming of the Shrew.*

Stanford University: *The Merchant of Venice, Desire Under the Elms, The Love for Three Oranges.*

IN THE STUDIOS

INDIANA UNIVERSITY TV PROGRAMMING. The Department of Speech plans to continue the series of original television programs which it inaugurated last year over Station WTTV. The course in television production, instituted in the Spring 1951, uses the WTTV studios for the technical aspects of the training.

AT THE CLINICS AND LABORATORIES

STANFORD CLINIC HOUSING. Stanford University has fully equipped one wing of a mansion, in former years the University President's home, as the Speech and Hearing Clinic. The space has been fully reconditioned for use in clinical teaching and services. In addition to the classroom seating thirty-five, the Center includes four consultation rooms (one equipped as a Children's Clinic), a recording laboratory, a sound-conditioned audiometric testing room with associated control rooms for tests involving amplified speech, and three individual staff offices. One of the offices houses a clinic library, books, pamphlets, and journals on speech and hearing for the use of staff and students.

FROM PLATFORM AND CONFERENCE TABLE

MICHIGAN SPEECH LEAGUE ORAL INTERPRETATION FESTIVAL. Last May, the Michigan Intercollegiate Speech League tested the effectiveness of an interpretative reading festival in place of its traditional competitive meet. For eighteen years, the participating college teachers and readers had come together for a contest-festival; by elimination, the ranking men and women in prose and poetry reading were chosen to read in a culminating program. Last year, the element of award or rank was altogether eliminated. At a recent fall meeting of the League Personnel in Charge of Activities, the vote was unanimous to continue the festival procedure indefinitely. The Michigan League is established and active; its decision should influence widely an activity which in many areas is still employing out-dated means to the end of encouraging interpretative reading. The purposes of oral reading have been redefined for a generation of teachers and readers, yet extant competitive procedures would seem to invalidate those purposes.

Instead of an arbitrary separation of men and women, and the superficial categories of "humorous" and "serious" readings, Otis J. Aggertt of Albion College, the director of the May meeting, was advised of selections in advance and arranged programs in the order which seemed most likely to provide pleasure for the audience. Instead of awards and eliminations, evaluations were made; these, however, were not tabulated and did not designate rank. An oral critique by Gladys Borchers of the University of Wisconsin at the close of each reading session was judged an invaluable addition to such a meeting.

The success of the experiment is attested by its immediate adoption. The most significant aspect of the change is that it substitutes an educational experience in the appreciation of literature for a highbrow amateur night, and emphasizes the conveying of ideas and emotions in place of the attempt to shock, startle, and impress, at risk of distorting the literature.

NORTHERN CALIFORNIA FORENSIC ASSOCIATION. The San Francisco Bay Area colleges have formed the Northern California Forensic Association; in addition to the State junior colleges, the organization includes Stanford University, the University of California, San Jose State College, San Francisco State College, the University of San Francisco, San Francisco City College, Santa Clara College, and St. Mary's College.

DELTA SIGMA RHO CHAPTER RE-ESTABLISHED. Delta Sigma Rho was installed on the campus of Indiana University; an early chapter functioned there from 1908 to 1924.

PERSONAL NOTES

Hubert C. Heffner, executive head of the Stanford University department of Speech and Drama, returned this fall from a year's sabbatical leave spent in Europe and the British Isles. His study and research covered theatres and theatre organization in Paris, four provincial French theatres, theatres in Germany and Switzerland, the Abbey Theatre in Dublin, and a score of provincial theatres in England. Among the lectures he delivered in the various countries were a series in Paris under the auspices of the Cultural Affairs Division of the State Department, a series in Munich by invitation of the Chief of the Educational and Cultural Relations Branch of the High Commission of Bavaria, and others at the Sorbonne. He participated in the International Universities Conference at Nice, and attended, as American delegate and representative of the American Educational Theatre Association, the Third International Theatre Congress in Oslo, and a conference at Erlangen University. The Erlangen Conference included discussion with the Rec-

tor and staff on the organization of American theatre arts department and assistance in their plans for establishing such a department. At the request of the President and the Advisory Council of AETA, Professor Heffner conferred upon his return to the United States with various officials in New York and Washington on Association affairs.

A. Nicholas Vardac was also on leave for ten months on the Continent and in England to study cinematic development; the research was carried out under a Fulbright fellowship.

Russell B. Archer, Brockport Teachers College, was elected to the Executive Council of the New York State Speech Association; last year Professor Archer served as chairman of the Language Arts, Speech, and Dramatic sections of the Organization. . . . William Markward and Robert Loper, formerly of the University of Colorado staff, are studying with Allardyce Nicoll at the University of Birmingham. . . . Jack Matthews returned this fall to the University of Pittsburgh from a research assignment in Japan and Korea; the project was carried out for the Department of the Army through the American Institute for Research. . . . Margaret Darragh, a former assistant on the Indiana University staff, has accepted a position at Ochanomizu University in Japan; she plans to complete research for her doctoral dissertation on the Japanese Theatre. . . . Norman DeMarco, University of Arkansas, was recently appointed manager of the new Fine Arts Center.

LEAVES OF ABSENCE: Louis Hetler from Brockport Teachers College, State University of New York, for graduate study at the University of Denver. . . . Charles A. Jones, from Washington State College, for graduate work at Northwestern; Hugh A. Rundell, from the same staff, at the University of Illinois. . . . Ray Ehrensberger from the University of Maryland, working on a special State Department project in Turkey; during his absence, Warren L. Stausbaugh serves as acting head of the department. . . . Richard A. Moody, Indiana University, is on sabbatical leave this year; during the spring semester, he will teach at the University of Hawaii. . . . Virgil Anderson from Stanford University, for writing and revision. Hayes Newby is serving as director of the Speech and Hearing Clinic in his absence.